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by his family.
to
Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society

THE
ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BOMBAY
Town Hall, Bombay.

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HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

VOLUME I.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

BRITISH POSZESSIONS IN ASIA.
CABUL
CHINESE TARTARY
BHOTAN
BAY OF BENGAL
ANDAMAN ISLANDS
NICOBAR ISLANDS
LACCADIVE ISLANDS
INDIAN OCEAN
Chronological Table of the Acquisitions of the British in India

211
1951

HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

BY

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.

MEMBER OF THE 'ASIATIC' AND OF THE 'MEDICAL AND PHYSICAL' SOCIETIES OF BENGAL, AUTHOR OF 'TAXATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE;' OF THE 'POLITICAL, FINANCIAL, AND COMMERCIAL CONDITION OF THE ANGLO-EASTERN EMPIRE;' 'IRELAND AS IT WAS—IS—AND OUGHT TO BE;' &c. &c.

IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOLUME I.

Second Edition.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

'FAR as the breeze can bear—the billows foam—
SURVEY OUR EMPIRE!'

LONDON:
JAMES COCHRANE AND CO.
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DEDICATION.

[FIRST EDITION.]

TO THE

KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

SIRE,

IN availing myself of YOUR MAJESTY'S gracious permission to inscribe to the Sovereign of the greatest Colonial Empire in the World its *first* Colonial History, I would desire to place on record, why that History is not more worthy the patronage of the Monarch to whom it is dedicated, or more commensurate with the importance of the subject to which it refers. There is no paucity of materials, Historical, Geographical, Statistic, or Pictorial. One-third of an active life spent in travelling among, and investigating the advantages of our transmarine possessions, either as an officer in YOUR MAJESTY'S Service, or as a private individual, anxious to ascertain the vast resources of Britain, has furnished me with the most abundant supply of data necessary for an *extensive* National Work; but, SIRE, the little encouragement afforded by Government to literature, even when

of the most useful description—added to the peculiar era in which we live, forbids the publication of such a work. Nevertheless, to remedy in some slight degree, an acknowledged blank in the History of our country, and in the earnest hope that a period will ere long arrive when the study of causes which influence the rise and fall of nations, will have its supremacy vindicated over the local and fleeting considerations which too generally sway the present age, I venture to lay before YOUR MAJESTY a brief, but yet lucid and comprehensive detail of facts, sufficient for the exercise of the judgment, on the momentous questions connected with the Possessions now under the Sovereignty of the British Crown.

SIRE,—The transmarine dominions of this *insular* Kingdom offer—to the Agriculturist measureless fields for pasture and tillage;—to the Manufacturer an incalculable extension of the home market for the disposal of his wares;—to the Merchant and Mariner, vast marts for profitable traffic in every product with which Nature has bounteously enriched the Earth;—to the Capitalist an almost interminable site for the profitable investment of his funds;—and to the industrious, skilful, and intelligent Emigrant, an area of upwards two million square miles, where every species of mental ingenuity and manual labour may be developed and nurtured into action, with advantage to the whole family of man. England—SIRE—has no need to manufacture beet-root sugar (as France)—her West and East India possessions yield an inexhaustible profusion of the cane;—grain (whether wheat, barley, oats, maize or rice,) every where abounds;—her

Asiatic, American, Australasian and African possessions contain boundless supplies of timber, corn, coal, iron, copper, gold, hemp, wax, tar, tallow, &c.;—the finest wools are grown in her South Asian regions;—cotton, opium, silk, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, saltpetre, spices, spirits, wines and fruits, are procurable of every variety and to any extent in the East and in the West, in the North and in the South of the Empire:—on the icy coast of Labrador as well as at the opposite Pole, her adventurous hunters and fishers pursue their gigantic game almost within sight of their protecting flag; and on every soil and under every habitable clime, Britons desirous of change, or who cannot obtain occupation at home, may be found implanting or extending the language, laws and liberties of their Father land. In fine, SIRE, on this wondrous Empire the solar orb never sets,—while the hardy woodsman and heroic hunter on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa are shivering beneath a wintry solstice, the peaceful, but no less meritorious farmer and shepherd on the Kysna* and Hawkesbury,† are rejoicing over the golden grain and fleece of the Autumnal Southern clime, and every breeze that blows from the Arctic to the Antarctic circles is wafting over the unfathomable ocean myriads—

'Whose march is on the mountain wave,
Whose home is on the deep.'

SIRE,—Although adulation characterizes the present period, I would not have sought the distinguished honour of dedicating to YOUR MAJESTY the following volume, did I not feel assured that the friends of freedom all over the globe, are

* In the Cape of Good Hope territories.
† In the New South Wales territories.

bound to YOUR MAJESTY in ties of deep personal attachment for the Regal support uniformly afforded to Civil and Religious Liberty;—that heartfelt feelings of respect and gratitude are due to a Sovereign whose anxiety for the public weal has ever predominated over private considerations; and whose very limited powers in a Constitutional Monarchy have been exercised with even-handed justice. It is the duty—the imperative obligation of every individual, however humble, in a free state, to express conscientiously but calmly his public opinions, for by such means truth is elicited; hence, it may be permitted the writer who has now the honour to address YOUR MAJESTY, to observe, that the construction of the British Empire at home and abroad, is now in a momentous state of transition, the fruits of which are yet in the womb of time—Providence in making us the instruments of ulterior events having wisely concealed them from human ken; this much, however, is evident, that to preserve the integrity of the British Empire under a general or federal form of government, the most prompt attention must be paid to its Colonies, the intrinsic worth of which is neither understood nor appreciated by the mass of the people. To YOUR MAJESTY'S Ministers, and to Parliament, the most remote Colonists now look with ardent anxiety, that they may be treated as the citizens of a Kingdom undivided by any Ocean,—and, SIRE, if Nations will derive lessons from the past, the bulwarks of England's Maritime Power and Oceanic Supremacy, would not be neglected until the danger had arisen of their being irrecoverably lost. In the hope, therefore, of directing public attention to the most remote, as well as to the nearest sections of the British Empire, and in the belief that a fair exposition

of facts, divested of party feeling or local prejudices, will receive from YOUR MAJESTY'S Government, that just consideration, which is all the Colonists require, I have the distinguished honour and gratification,

SIRE,

To subscribe myself,

YOUR MAJESTY'S dutiful subject,

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN.

LONDON,
1st *February*, 1834.

Possessions.	Ceded, Conquered, or Colonized.	Date of Acquisition.	Locality. Lat. N.	Locality. Long. E.	Area in Square Miles.	Population. White.	Population. Colored.	Colonial Revenue.	Parliamentary Grant, or Expence for Troops.	Regular Military Strength. European.	Regular Military Strength. Natives.	Maritime Commerce. Imports.	Maritime Commerce. Exports	Shipping. To England.	Shipping. Total Inwards.	Property.‡ Yearly Created.	Property.‡ Moveable and Immoveable.	Capital, City, or Town.	Locality. Lat. N.	Locality. Long. E.	Population. White.	Population. Colored.	On River or Coast.
			°	°				£.	£.			£.	£.	Tons.	Tons.	£.	£.						
Bengal	Ceded	1765	20 a 26	82 a 91	150000	26000†	40000000									13000000	100000000	Calcutta	21 2	88 22	6000	1200000	Hooghly.
Agra	Do. & Conq.	1801-3 to 1815	23 a 32	75 a 82	88000	5000	32000000	11800000		10000	100000	2500000	5600000	50000	120000	10000000	50000000	Agra‖	27 11	77 53	200	100000	Jumna.
Ult. Gang.	Conquered	1825	9 a 27	90 a 99	50000	500	1000000		None.							1500000	20000000	Arracan	20 30	92 5	100	10000	Bay of Bengal.
Madras	Ditto	1792 to 1800	8 a 20	74 a 85	142000	10000	15000000	4700000		15000	58000	1200000	2000000	20000	110000	48000000	200000000	Madras	13 5	80 20	1200	500000	Ditto.
Bombay	Do. & Ceded	1803 to 1818	16 a 24	72 a 76	64938	10000	6000000	2200000		8000	33000	1000000	800000	28000	60000	25000000	150000000	Bombay	18 56	72 57	3000	230000	Indian Ocean.
Ceylon	Conquered	1796 & 1815	5.56 a 9.50	80 a 82	24661	8000	1000000	420000	100000	1800	1600	350000	250000	4700	78000	1000000	6000000	Colombo	6 57	80 0	4000	32000	Ditto.
Penang	Colonized	1786	5.15 a 5.29	100	169	500	60000			50	300	522382	360000	§	§	60000	5600000	George T.	5 25	100 19	300	12000	Straits of Malacca.
Malacca	Ceded	1825	2.14	102	809	300	34000	56000	None.	20	200	100000	70000	§	§	45000	6000000	Malacca	2 14	102 12	200	6000	
Singapore	Colonized	1819	1.16	104	330	200	22000			§	§	1700000	1500000	8000	137000	100000	2000000	Singapore	1 16	104	26	1200	
					521792	66500	97112000	19176000	100000	38870	196000	7372382	9980000	110700	500000	305703000	1933000000				15126	2092200	

* Accurate details, fractional parts; &c. of this table will be found copiously explained in various parts of the Volume, as a guide to which I refer to the Index; the object in giving the table is to shew, at *one complete view*, the British possessions in Asia, and to enable the most superficial observer to perceive their magnitude and importance at a glance.

† The European military are included in the white population.

‡ The estimate of property is of course only an approximation to correctness; I have reason, however, to think the data under estimated; the Collectors of Revenue in British India ought to be instructed to send in estimates of the property fixed and moveable in each Collectorate. We are sadly deficient in Indian statistics.

§ No returns.

‖ It is proposed to make Allahabad the seat of this Lieutenant Governorship.

¶ This includes the suburbs on either side of the river, embracing Entally and all beyond the Mahratta Ditch, towards the Salt Water Lake, and round to Kidderpoor, &c.

INTRODUCTION

TO THE SECOND EDITION

OF

THE FIRST VOLUME

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

A SECOND edition of the first volume of the '*History of the British Colonies*' was called for before the fourth volume had issued from the Press; in cheerfully complying with the demand, I cannot refrain from offering a few observations not entirely irrelevant to the work, but which are far from being prompted either by motives of vanity or of personal considerations. I should be doing injustice to my own feelings—and wanting in duty to the Colonies, were I to refrain from expressing my deep sense of gratitude for the kindness I have received from their Majesties, and from the several branches of the Royal Family,—a kindness to which an enlightened public have added the testimony of their approbation. Though I may not have deserved the high encomiums that have been passed on my undertaking,—and though I feel most sensibly my manifold deficiencies, I will not, under the cloak of an affected humility, deny that in prosecuting towards a completion the present work, I ardently sought to merit in some degree, however slight, the patronage of my

gracious Sovereign, by exerting every effort within my limited power and circumscribed means to advocate the interests of the transmarine Possessions of England, and to make the condition, the wants and the sentiments of upwards of one hundred million of British subjects known at the seat of government. In truth I declare, that I much wish the task had fallen to the lot of some more favoured individual;—not that I shrunk from the difficulty of keeping up the unremitting toil of days—weeks—months, and I may add, years; but because I found how impossible it was to steer clear of party feelings and selfish interests, without expressing in strong language opinions on either adverse side; I fear that on some occasions I may have used too harsh expressions while advocating the rights of the Colonists, but any passages liable to the charge have been carefully expunged in the present edition, and such alterations made as a more matured judgment, and a calmer tone of thought may have suggested.

I may be in error as to the mercantile value and political importance of our transmarine possessions,—if so it is an error unbiassed by private considerations; for I possess no interest territorially or pecuniary in any colony—I am not engaged in commerce—I hold no Government office—I have received no Government aid, nor have I procured the patronage of any individual or association—but looking only to public support and approbation, I have tasked my understanding in vain to find out wherein the alleged error lies,—and the reader will find in my '*Colonial Policy*' the arguments put forth against colonies, fairly met and impartially considered apart from the abuses to which the best institutions are liable.

In reference to the observation of lighter matters being

mixed up with graver details—herein lay one of my chief difficulties; a dry statistical work, or abstract history of bygone events, would have obtained few perusers at the present day, and the main object I had in view—namely to stimulate the curiosity—and attract the minds of the British public towards the Colonies would have been defeated; I chose, therefore, to incur rather the charge of frivolity than lose the opportunity of doing good—I preferred gilding the pill when I could even thus minister to the welfare of my country.

Ere I close this introduction, let me again entreat public attention to the state of Hindostan, not only for the sake of the Hindoos, but also as regards the prosperity of Britain. It is suicidal for England to persevere in her present commercial policy towards India; by our past measures we have beggared the best customer that our merchants, manufacturers and traders had ever presented to them; for example, estimating the sum of money drawn from British India for the last 30 years at £3,000,000 per annum, it amounts at 12 per cent. (the Indian rate of interest) compound interest, to £723,997,971 Sterling; or if we calculate it at £2,000,000 per annum for 50 years—the abstraction of capital from Hindostan amounts to the almost incredible sum of *eight thousand four hundred million pounds Sterling!* (£8,400,000,000).*

No country, however rich in territory, fertile in resources, or industrious and numerous in population, could withstand the desolating influence of such a constant and accelerating drain on its circulating medium and wealth;—we see its results

* Strictly speaking, the actual withdrawal of capital in the 50 years is £100,000,000; but had that vast sum been left in India, it would have 'fructified' in the pockets of the Hindoos, and produced as great, if not a greater result than that mentioned in the text.

in the mercantile failures which have taken place in Calcutta alone within two or three years, amounting to £15,000,000 Sterling!

Why, the merchant princes of Venice or of the Medici, were pedlars to these Anglo-Indian Houses, who have nevertheless, with the vast property attached to them, been ruthlessly annihilated, amidst the sorrowing tears of parents, widows and orphans, who, by no fault of their own, have been suddenly hurled from comparative affluence into biting poverty—thrust forth on the charity of the world.

Oh! that Englishmen would look more to their immense possessions in Hindostan than they have yet done; there is nothing there repulsive to meet the eye,—the lust of conquest has not desolated provinces,—nor the thirst of wealth plundered kingdoms,—British taxes have not been expended in adding dominion or vain glory to our diadem, but the hallowed blessings of peace have followed the track of our footsteps until in less than half a century an hundred million of brave, intelligent, and comparatively civilized human beings are congregated within the pale of this extraordinary Empire: Is it not impious to spurn the manifold blessings attendant on an event which almost realizes the wildest dream that an ambitious imagination could form? *On the one hand*, we behold a small island in the Atlantic admirably adapted for commerce, and possessing a hardy, industrious and skilful manufacturing population;—*on the other*, a vast territory, situate in a distant hemisphere,—with a soil exuberantly fertile—a varied, and not ungenial clime—abounding in all the tropical products which the wants or luxuries of the Hyperborean can require,—and teeming with myriads upon myriads of industrious, patient and emulative human beings, whose love of

agriculture and trade is unsurpassed by any other nation. It would appear as if nature herself had linked together the Northern Isle and Eastern Continent under the one Crown for the wisest purposes, namely, that by the interchange of commodities indigenous to each, the peaceful influence of commerce might become the handmaid of civilization—and thus contribute towards the extension of the humanizing influence of Christianity through the varied and numerous kingdoms of the Asiatic Hemisphere. Let us hope that a new era is dawning for England and for India; the latter offers to the former an incalculable domestic market for the disposal of her cottons, woollens, hardware, pottery, &c., and presents in return all the raw products which the most varied manufacturing skill can require: but so long as the Island continues to beggar the Continent by draining the latter of her circulating medium,—forcing on her steam-wrought manufactures, and refusing by means of prohibitory duties the simplest productions of her soil, so long as such policy be pursued the union of the Northern Island and Eastern Continent is disastrous for both;—it is somewhat like the vulture preying on the liver of Prometheus, with this exception, that though the appetite of the one may grow by what it feeds upon, the power of the other is becoming yearly less and less capable of furnishing the pabula of life.

Let me be excused for putting these views more familiarly before the public,—there are upwards of ONE HUNDRED MILLION OF BRITISH SUBJECTS IN INDIA—(to say nothing of *another hundred million* of tributary, allied, and protected Hindoos); if we dealt out commercial justice to these people, their condition would be materially elevated—that is, if we took from thence our raw cotton—our tobacco—our sugars—

coffee, &c. &c., they would be enabled in return to do that which their poverty now alone prevents—namely to purchase largely our Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, Staffordshire, and Birmingham wares. For instance, if those 100,000,000 of British subjects only took each a turban or a gown-piece yearly, averaging for the rich and poor at so low as 10 yards, and at 6*d.* per yard, the amount of exports *in cotton goods alone* from England to India would be £25,000,000 sterling! (For what our trade now is, see Chap. VI. on *Commerce.*) On the other hand, let us examine the article sugar, which the continent offers to the island so abundantly, but which the latter has heretofore, and still, virtually prohibits. The consumption of sugar and sweets may be estimated at present, among 26,000,000 inhabitants in the United Kingdom, at 4,000,000 cwt. or 448,000,000 lbs. weight, which would give to each mouth 17 lbs. of sugar per annum, or 5 oz. per week, a quantity which the youngest infant would consume. Now, granting that the West Indies can continue to supply this 4,000,000 cwt. of sugar, which is, however, problematical, there can be no doubt that it is possible to extend that quantity; so that any reduction of duty on the import of sugar into England would go to benefit the West India planter, and not the British consumer, if the former were still to retain a monopoly of the home market: but if the *source of supply* (which heretofore has wilfully or neglectfully been forgotten) be extended, and the British possessions in the *East* placed on a fair footing with those in the *West*, the consumers in this country would derive not merely the advantage of a reduction of import duties, but also (what is of far greater value) the diminution of cost price, which an extended competition is sure to produce. In such case,

there would be a vast augmentation in the consumption of sugar: it is an article of general utility—grateful to the young and the old, adapted to almost every article of nourishment, and well suited for fattening animals as well as men. It is by no means, therefore, hypothetical to assume that, on an equalization and diminution of the duties on East and West India sugars, the consumption consequent on reduced price would be extended from *five* ounces per head per week in the United Kingdom, to at at least 15 ounces per week; and admitting that the West Indies continued to supply one-third the quantity (five ounces), and which they could not extend, the possessions in the East Indies would readily furnish the remaining two-thirds, or 896,000,000 lbs., which, at a cost price of *2d.* per lb., would open up a new commerce for Hindostan *of seven and a half million sterling* (£7,466,666. sterling). In a financial point of view, this arrangement would be decidedly beneficial to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who would receive on 12,000,000 cwts. of sugar, at 12*s.* per cwt. (which would be a duty high enough), upwards of *seven million sterling* per annum (£7,200,000.), while he does not now receive £5,000,000.; and suppose the duty levied at 15*s.* per cwt., he would receive £9,000,000. per annum. With reference to the advantages that commerce would derive from such a change, we would have an extended exportation of British manufactures to India, which would be repaid in sugars, cotton, tobacco, silk, coffee, &c.

Referring the enquiring reader to my Second Volume, Chapter XVI, for fuller details as regards the mode in which the West Indies would be affected, and how this act of justice and expediency should be met;—and in the hope that the Courts of Directors and Proprietors of the Honour-

able East India Company will strenuously and unremittingly pursue their laudable endeavours to obtain an equitable commercial reciprocity for Hindostan, instead of the one-sided system of (so called), free trade, which is still in operation, I conclude with cordially thanking a generous Public and an impartial Press for the encouragement afforded me towards the prosecution of labours, the grand aim of which is, the happiness and perpetuity of the British Empire.

It will be perceived that, in the present edition (the second), 100 pages of new matter have been added above the number given in the former edition; and, in order to do this, as well as to add several valuable manuscript documents furnished by the E. I. House, Board of Control, Custom House, Colonial Office, &c., a portion of what appeared in the *first* edition is necessarily omitted; viz. the chapter on China, the incomplete census of India, and other documents given in the Appendix, which were before printed rather to shew our lamentable ignorance of Indian statistics, and to excite attention to the subject, than as being themselves of value. A complete chapter has been given on the Hindoos, their character, institutions, customs, &c.; valuable additions have been made to the commercial, religious, and educational portions of the volume; and the returns of the subsidized, protected, and tributary chiefs of India are now, for the first time, printed. A new general map, together with one of lower Bengal, has been added, and no pains spared to render the work deserving of public approbation.

*** The Reader will occasionally perceive a discrepancy in the orthography of some Oriental proper names, but that is an evil not to be avoided, as the vowels are supplied arbitrarily by the ear of the European.

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HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH POWER IN ASIA—CONQUEST AND FORMATION OF THE TERRITORIES UNDER THE PRESIDENCIES OF BENGAL, MADRAS AND BOMBAY—AND AN ACCOUNT OF THE STIPENDIARY PRINCES, OF THE SUBSIDIZED AND PROTECTED STATES, AND OF THE TRIBUTARY OR FEUDATORY CHIEFS, &c.

THE British Empire on the continent of Asia is without a parallel in the history of the World: a generation has scarcely passed away* since a few English merchants skirted the coasts of the far famed peninsula of Hindostan, as humble suppliants to establish mercantile residencies on its fertile and wealthy shores, amidst myriads of brave and comparatively civilized men: while within the brief space of half a century, an active and intelligent population of 100,000,000 souls, and a dominion of upwards of one million square miles† of the richest por-

* The Dewany or Stewardship of Bengal and Bahar was finally ceded to the East India Company in 1765.

† The total British territory under the immediate Government of the East India Company, is 514,190 square miles (i. e. *ten times* the size of England!) and the extent in square miles of British territory in India, and of territories protected by Great Britain, is 1,128,800¾.—[*Parliamentary Returns*, 1831] For details, see pp. 50 51.

tion of the earth, has been restored from unheard of anarchy and bloodshed, to comparative order, peace and prosperity.

The earliest authentic European account of Hindostan is derived from Alexander's army which the Macedonian Chief pushed across the different rivers of the Punjaub without however reaching the Ganges; at this period a considerable portion of India was subject to the Persian monarchy. Subsequently the Hindoos became tributaries to the all-pervading sway of the disciples of Mahomet, and finally subjects of the victorious Moslems, who, headed by Timur or Tamerlane, extended their conquests from the Irtish and Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Ganges to the Archipelago. A century after the death of Tamerlane, the Portuguese appeared on the coasts of India, having effected a passage to the eastward by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, and thus completely changed the European route of commerce with the Eastern Hemisphere, which had previously been carried on by the Red Sea and Egypt, or by the Black Sea and Constantinople. The example of the Portuguese was followed by the Dutch, French, and English. Within less than a century after the death of Timur, or Tamerlane, the Portuguese under Vasco De Gama arrived in India, and found the west coast of Coromandel divided between two great sovereigns—the King of Cambay and the Zamorin; by aiding the petty princes who were dependent on the latter, the Portuguese soon acquired a paramount influence on the Malabar shore, and at the commencement of the 16th century secured themselves in, and fortified Goa, which they made the capital of their settlements and commerce in the Eastern seas, extending over the East coast of Africa, the coasts of Arabia and Persia, the two peninsulas of India, Ceylon, the Molluccas—their trade even stretching to China and Japan. At this period they levied tribute on 150 native Princes, and claimed and exercised a power to sweep from the Indian seas every European vessel that sailed without their permission. Of this mighty dominion scarcely a vestige now exists. The annexation of Portugal to the Crown of Spain, and the war

waged against the Hollanders, led to the Dutch, who had heretofore been content with the carrying trade between Lisbon and the N. of Europe, proceeding to India; and at the commencement of the 17th century they became formidable rivals of the Portuguese, stripping them first of Malacca and Ceylon, then driving them from various settlements on the Malabar coast, and finally usurping their place on the shores of Coromandel. The enterprizing spirit of the English was not long behind in establishing a trade in the Eastern Hemisphere, and they were followed by the French, who became the most powerful rivals of the former after the dominion and trade of the Portuguese and Dutch had declined.

Although it is not within the province of this work to enter into details of the conquests of the Colonial possessions of Britain, it is impossible to avoid bestowing a few pages in explanation of the mode by which our acquisitions on the continent of Asia were obtained, and for the better understanding of the subject, it will be necessary to consider the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras and Bombay separately, (Agra Presidency is only a Lieutenancy of Bengal) as regards their subjugation to the prowess of England, making brevity, as far as it is consistent with perspicuity, the leading feature of a work in which *utility* may well be deemed of more consequence than ornateness of style or elaborateness of diction. The first Charter for the incorporation of the East India Company, was granted by Queen Elizabeth on the last day of the sixteenth century, and was one of exclusive trade in the Indian seas for fifteen years with promise of renewal. In 1635, Charles I. being in want of money, granted a license to Sir William Courten and others, to trade where the existing East India Company had no settlements, but such collision ensued, that a compromise was effected the year preceding the Commonwealth. In 1653 the East India trade was thrown open by Cromwell for four years, and history informs us it was found expedient to reinstate the Company in their entire privileges in 1657, Cromwell and his Council being

convinced of the national advantages resulting from the incorporation of the East India Company. The subscribed capital of the Company then amounted to £739,782. Charles II. granted a new Charter with ample privileges in 1661. In 1665 the Company commenced a trade with China, and among the orders to their factor at Bantam in 1667, was "100 *lb. weight of the best tay he could gett.*" As the territorial conquests and acquisitions of the East India Company had now commenced, it will be necessary to detail briefly the history of passing events, merely premising that the East India Company's Charter was confirmed by Charles II. in 1677, again in 1683, and subsequently by James II. In 1686 a new Company was formed by dint of shameful bribery and corruption, the Duke of Leeds was impeached, and the project fell to the ground. Government being in want of £2,000,000, the avaricious ministers established a rival joint stock company in 1698; the rivalship was productive of serious injury to both Companies and to the nation at large, and under Lord Godolphin's arbitration an union took place in 1702, since which period, as will be seen by the following history, the principal conquests in India have been made.

BENGAL PRESIDENCY—ITS CONQUEST AND FORMATION.

The British territories under the Presidency of Bengal are divided into the *Lower*, or permanently settled, and the *Upper*, or western provinces. Lower Bengal is situate towards the eastern part of Hindostan between the 21st and 27. N. lat., being three hundred and fifty miles long, with an average breadth of three hundred miles: the distinct language and peculiar written character of its people is the chief test of its boundaries and antiquity. Hamilton says, that at the time of the war of the Mahabarat, Bengal formed part of the Magadha or Bahar, and that it was dismembered before the Mahomedan invasion of Hindostan. In 1203 A.D. Cuttub ud Dheen, then on the Mahomedan throne of Delhi, sent an army and conquered Bengal, and until 1340 this granary of

Hindostan was ruled by viceroys or soubahs, with power delegated from Delhi; but in this year Fakher ud Deen revolted and erected Bengal into an independent kingdom, governed by Mussulman kings. Thus it continued, and in a terrible state of anarchy, until re-conquered by the Emperor Acbar's army in 1576, and re-erected into a soubah or viceroyalty of Delhi. From 1576 to 1632, seventeen viceroys held sway in Bengal, collecting the revenues of the country, administering justice, and remitting to the Imperial Treasury the balance of the taxes left after defraying the expenses of the Government. When the power of the Mahomedan Princes at Delhi was on the wane, the English appeared in Bengal as traders, subsequently as Soubah, or, as it was termed, Dewan (steward) of Bengal for the Mogul Emperor, and finally as rulers not merely of Bengal, but of Delhi itself and the whole peninsula of Hindostan! The mode in which the British acquired territorial supremacy was as follows:— The Moslems had held sway in Lower Bengal for four centuries, when in 1632, A.D. the Mogul Emperor, Shah Jehan, granted permission to the English to trade and establish a factory at Piply,* a sea-port in Orissa, the principal resort of European merchants, there being no other port to which they were then admitted.

In 1656, owing to the skill of an English doctor (Boughton) the East India Company received the Mogul's or Emperor of Delhi's sanction to locate themselves on the right bank of the river Hooghly (one of the branches of the Ganges, lat. 22.54. N., long. 88.28. E.), along the banks of which river the Portuguese, Dutch, French, and Danes had previously erected factories within ten miles of each other, viz. at Hooghly, Chinsurah, Chandernagore, and Serampore. The East India Company subsequently formed factories at Cossimbuzar on the same river (lat. 24.10. N., long. 88.15. E.), and at Patna on the Ganges (lat. 25.37. N., long. 85.15. E.). In 1681 the Bengal factories, still merely trading concerns,

* District of Midnapoor, 28 miles E.N.E. from Balasore, Lat. 21.42. N. long. 87.20. E. Now almost washed away, and scarcely to be discovered.

were formed into a separate government from those of Madras, under the control of which latter named factory they had previously been. The exactions of the Mahomedan officers from Delhi continued to be so great and uncontrollable, that in 1686 the English chief at Hooghly came to a rupture with the Moslem commander at the same place; a battle followed between the British factory and the Nabob's troops, in which the latter were defeated with considerable loss, a Moslem battery destroyed, and eleven guns spiked. Although Capt. Nicholson, with an armed fleet of 10 merchant vessels, opportunely arrived, the Company's factors quitted Hooghly on the 20th December, 1686, as they considered it indefensible, and feared meeting the same fate as their European predecessors had done.* The factors fixed their residence at Chuttanutty village (now Calcutta), on the left bank of the Hooghly, 26 miles nearer to the sea, from which it is distant 100 miles. Here the East India Company carried on their trade until 1696, when the rebellion of Soubah Sing against the Mogul at Delhi took place; and the Dutch, French, and English at Chinsurah, Chandanagore, and Chuttanutty (Calcutta), requested and received permission to erect defences around their factories; being the first time that the Mahomedans in Bengal had permitted Europeans to fortify their residencies.

In 1700 Azim Ushaun, Viceroy of Bengal, and grandson of Aurungzebe, being in want of treasure to dispute the succession to the Mogul throne, accepted from the East India Company a large sum of money for the township on which their factory at Chuttanutty stood, together with the adjacent lands

* The Portuguese and Moguls having quarrelled, the latter invested Hooghly with a large army, besieged it for nearly four months, and then carried the town by assault. Thousands were put to the sword, notwithstanding their previous offer of submission; one vessel containing two thousand Portuguese was blown up by the Commander, lest it should fall into the hands of their foes, and out of 64 large ships, 57 grabs and 200 sloops which were anchored off Hooghly, only one grab and two sloops were saved from the wrath of the Moslems.

of Calcutta and Govindpoor. In 1704 the whole stock of the Company in Bengal was removed to Calcutta or Fort William (so called out of compliment to the King), the garrison of which consisted of 129 soldiers (only 66 of whom were Europeans), and a gunner and his crew of about five and twenty men; and in 1707 Fort William was dignified with the title of a Presidency, forming the foundation of that wonderful empire which ere long was destined to spread its authority from the Ganges to the Indus—from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya!*

For nearly half a century the British at Calcutta pursued a peaceful and profitable commerce, until in 1756 the ferocious moslem Surajee ud Dowlah invested and captured the East India Company's factory of Fort William, placed Mr. Holwel and his 146 companions in a dungeon (the '*Black Hole*') only 18 feet square; and in less than 24 hours not more than 24 Englishmen (and prisoners) remained of the British Presidency in Bengal;—an inauspicious prelude to the future.

* It has before been remarked how the English were indebted in 1655 to the skill of an English doctor for permission to settle at Piply; in 1713 our country was again indebted to its medical skill for further privileges; Mr. Hamilton, a surgeon in the East India Company's service, having accompanied an embassy to Delhi soliciting certain privileges, a powerful opposition was met in the mogul court, and the embassy were on the point of returning unsuccessful, when it so happened that the Emperor (Feroksheré) was seized with a dangerous illness which baffled the skill of the native physicians: Mr. Hamilton's advice was solicited, given, and successful; on being desired to name his reward, he nobly cast aside private advantages, and implored a grant of the objects of the mission, which were gratefully conceded. Hamilton's remains rest without a stone to mark their interment in the burial ground at Calcutta, his patriotism and his services unremembered; and although the natives of India have been more linked to England in ties of personal affection by means of the skill of our surgeons and physicians than by any other class of the East India Company's servants, they are the worst paid and most ill requited officers in the East: their lives are spent in doing good, and old age brings with it little to solace but the remembrance of the past: it is to be hoped that a Profession combining in its exercise science, extensive knowledge and christian charity will soon meet its deserts.

But one of those epochs which mark the decline or advance of a nation had now spread its influence over Britain, who found it necessary to combat for existence, as well as pre-eminence, in Europe and in Asia with her Gallic neighbour, who so often has disputed the palm of superiority with her insular compeer; and fortunately for the latter, as regarded the progress of England in the east, there then started into busy life one of those extraordinary personages who, overcoming all impediments, seem destined to succeed in whatever undertaking they commence. And here let the author be permitted to observe, that it does not fall within his province in a work like the present to analyze motives or criticise the means by which the British possessions have been acquired in any part of the globe. Unfortunately the annals of man from the earliest ages shew that when the desire and the power to seize on the property or rights of others are combined, occasions are soon found for the purpose; yet it may afford some consolation to think that Britain more than any other great nation has been less guilty of wars of aggression;—her acquisitions in India as well as other places originating principally in the all imperious necessity of self-preservation.

It may be said 'the English were now forcibly expelled from Bengal by the *natives*, and they had no right to return,' —such in fact has been the argument used from the days of Burke to the present period; but the assertion is neither just, nor founded on the right of nations which is merely in a more extended sense the principles by which an individual of the social compact is governed; granting for argument sake that the English had been driven from Bengal by the '*natives*;' in the first place, the former were entitled to compensation for the loss of their factory which they had been legally permitted to purchase, and unless restitution were made, the sufferers had a moral right to obtain it by force, as also to punish the murderers of their countrymen, who had committed no offence and offered every possible submission.

In the second place, the British and French nations were

at war in Europe, and from the small and insulated position of the former, the power and dominion which France was rapidly and zealously obtaining in Hindostan would, if permitted to progress, be ere long fatal to the independence of the British isles; hence the absolute and unavoidable necessity of establishing a power in India at least equal to that of France, or, if possible superior: indeed, the different maritime kingdoms of Europe sought a preponderating balance of power by the acquisition of dominion in Asia; and if England had refused to play for the extraordinary stake which would recompense her for the loss of her American provinces, and place her at the head of the potentates of the earth, the commanding influence of her opinions and councils, whether for good or ill, would have expired with the last century; not only, however, was there an imperious necessity to prevent by every possible means the dominion of French authority in India or in Egypt, but there arose also the peculiar rights of security and *vicinage*, the enforcement of which became a matter not merely of expediency or prudence, but of absolute requirement; this point will be the more readily granted as proven, when it is demonstrated that in the third place—it was *not the natives* who expelled in so barbarous a manner the British from their peaceful pursuits on the banks of the Ganges, but their Moslem conquerors, who, to the number of some thousands, kept millions of one of the most timid and passive races of men in abject subjection by means of murder, torture, and confiscation, to an extent never witnessed in the western world, and which (being continued for centuries) would, under a less genial clime, or with a less enduring people, have been terminated by total depopulation. The destruction of the Moslem sway in Bengal by Britain, must indeed be considered as a blessing rather than an evil by any person who has perused the records of that ill-fated but beautiful land, whose historic scroll had for ages been bedewed with human gore, either from internal insurrections, or from the attempts of fresh locusts who sought to share in the spoils of their more fortunate brethren.

To return from this digression.—In August, 1756, the alarming state of the East India Company's affairs at Calcutta reached Madras; and Lieutenant-Colonel Clive,* who had just returned from Europe as Deputy-Governor of Fort St. David, threw his prompt and energetic councils into the Madras Government, for the purpose of re-establishing the East India Company's Factory at Calcutta, and avenging the sanguinary deed of Surajee ud Dowlah. After considerable deliberation, the advice of Clive for the resumption of British power in Bengal was followed; and he was nominated to command the force destined for the perilous purpose. The armanent consisting of 900 Europeans and 1500 Sepoy troops, and a naval squadron, comprising of the *Kent* of 64 guns, *Cumberland* of 70, *Tiger* of 60, *Salisbury* of 50, and the *Bridgewater* of 20, under the command of rear Admirals Watson and Pocock, sailed from Madras, 16th October, 1756, and with the exception of the *Cumberland* of 70 guns, (with the flag of Admiral Pocock) which grounded on the sandheads off Saugur, and subsequently bore up for Vizigapatam; anchored in the river Hooghly, off Fulta, 20 miles S.S.W. from Calcutta, 15th November, where the remnant of the British Factory was found. The fort of Mayapore was taken 28th April; the Governor of Calcutta (Moneek Chund) attempted to make a stand near the fort of Budge Budge, ten miles S.S.W. of Calcutta, with 2000 foot, and 1500 horse, but,

* This extraordinary individual who influenced so powerfully the fate of the British Empire in the East, was the son of a country gentleman of ancient family, but of small estate, at Styche, in Shropshire, and born on the 29th of September, 1725; his father practised the profession of the law at Market Drayton, which young Robert Clive was at first destined to follow, had not his daring disposition induced his father to accept for him the offer of a writership in India, from the duties of which he was soon roused by the French bombardment of Madras in September, 1746; after serving with wonderful intrepidity as a volunteer in several actions, Clive solicited and obtained the appointment of ensign in 1747, and lieutenant in 1749. How Clive escaped unhurt from all the perilous achievements in which he was engaged, is, indeed, a matter of astonishment. Lord Clive died in his 50th year.

after a short contest, he fled utterly routed to Calcutta.—Budge Budge fortress was besieged and breached by Admiral Watson, 29th December, 1756, and evacuated by the enemy during the night, on the firing and summons of a drunken sailor, who was thought by the Hindoos to be followed by the whole English army.*

The furious onslaught of the British, had so alarmed the Governor of Calcutta, that he fled on the approach of Colonel Clive, leaving but 500 of the Nabob's troops for its protection, who only stood a few broadsides from our ships, (after losing about 20 men) when Calcutta Factory became once more the property of the East India Company. The Town of Hooghly was next taken possession of by assault, after a slight resistance; but on the 2nd February, 1757, the Nabob Surajee Dowlah arrived before Calcutta with a large army and artillery, rejecting any armistice or negotiation. He was immediately attacked by Clive, with a force consisting of 650 troops of the line, 100 artillery-men, with six field pieces, 800 sepoys, and 600 seamen. After a severe contest, in which the dogged valour of British troops struck terror into the enemy;† the former returned to Calcutta, and a peace was concluded with Surajee, and the East India Company were authorised to re-assume their possessions in tranquillity, to fortify strongly Calcutta and carry on trade as before.

Intelligence of war being declared between Great Britain and France having reached India, and it being seen that Surajee was only temporizing, until he saw a more favourable opportunity for the expulsion of the English, Colonel Clive formed the project of deposing the Soubah or Nabob, (the

* The sailor was named Str[illegible]han; an[illegible]being brought on board his ship and flogged for going on[illegible]nore, his characteristic reply, was, that he'd be d——d if ever he'd take another fort for them! The remains of the fort choked up with ruins still exist, but the greater part of its materials were recently employed in the more useful structure of an English Inn.

† The British loss in *killed*, was, Europeans of the line 27; seamen 12; sepoys 18: in *wounded*, Europeans 70; seamen 12; sepoys 35. The Nabob lost 22 officers of distinction, 600 men, 500 horses, 4 elephants, several camels and a great many bullocks.

supreme power at Delhi was now little more than nominal) and placing Meer Jaffier, one of the highest military characters in Bengal on the Musnud, or government seat; it being the opinion of Clive, that Meer Jaffier owing his seat to the Company, would be less disposed to molest them. A treaty was therefore entered into with Meer Jaffier by Colonel Clive, Admiral Watson, and the Court and Council of Calcutta; that, in the event of his being raised to the Nabob or Viceroyship, the French nation were to be entirely excluded from Bengal; a territory around Calcutta was to be secured to the Company, with an indemnity of ten million of rupees for the injuries inflicted by Surajee; 5,000,000 rupees to the British inhabitants; 2,700,000 rupees to the natives and Armenians who were living at the time under the protection of the Company; 2,500,000 rupees were to be allotted to the army, and a like sum to the navy.

This project was commenced by Colonel Clive marching to attack the French Settlement and Fort of Chandernagore,* 16 miles above Calcutta, on the Hooghly; of which he began the siege, 14th March, 1757, instantly driving in the outposts and investing the fort. The land forces were seconded by Admirals Watson and Pocock, with two line of battle ships. The French were unable to withstand the combined attack, and after a brave defence in which numbers fell on both sides, Chandernagore surrendered on the 22nd March, and a part of the garrison escaped to the army of Surajee Dowlah, whom Colonel Clive marched towards to Cossimbuzar to attack on the 13th of June following, with a force of 2000 sepoys, 900 Europeans, 100 topasses, eight 6-pounders and two howitzers. On the 16th June, Clive reduced Pattee, a fortified post on the Cossimbuzar river, as also the town and castle of Cutwah, 12 miles higher up the river; and on the 22nd of the

* The French have now a Settlement of two or three miles in extent at Chandernagore, and our Government ought to take steps for its cession to Great Britain, as also, of the contiguous Settlement of the Danes at Serampore; their maintenance is of no use to those Powers, and they are an eyesore and detriment in the heart of our dominions.

same month, the little British army on arriving opposite Cossimbuzar Island, came in sight of Surajee's army of 50,000 foot, 8000 horse, a body of French officers, and a strong train of artillery consisting of 50 pieces, encamped on the celebrated plain of Plassey.*

The result of this celebrated battle is well known, Clive stood on the defensive from day-light till 2 P.M., his small band being covered by a grove and high bank, when taking advantage of the confusion and slaughter, which his artillery caused in the dense ranks of the enemy, and the death of their principal general, he became the assailant; Meer Jaffier's corps separated from Surajee's army, a total rout followed, the Nabob fled on his swiftest elephant, escorted by 2,000 chosen cavalry, and astonishing to say, Clive remained master of the battle field and its tents, artillery, camp equipage, provisions, &c., with only a loss in killed, of Europeans eight, and Sepoys sixteen, and in wounded, of Europeans twelve, and Sepoys thirty-six!

Meer Jaffier was saluted by Clive Nabob of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa; Surajee in his flight disguised, fell into the hands of a poor peasant whom he had formerly in his tyranny caused to be deprived of his ears,† and the soldiers of Clive, engaged in his pursuit, made the deposed Nabob prisoner, who soon fell a victim to the dagger of the son of Meer Jaffier. The new Nabob paid down of his stipulations to the British 800,000*l.* out of 22,000,000 rupees, or 2,750,000*l.* sterling, and engaged to furnish the remainder by instalments. From this extraordinary battle may be dated the commencement of the British Empire in Bengal, for the power of investing the Soubahs, or Nabobs, with authority in Bengal, was now assumed by the East India Company's government;

* A town in Nuddea, thirty miles from Moorshedabad, lat. 23.45. N. long. 88.15. E.

† An interesting Eastern romance has been founded on this incident; the Hindoos delight in pointing to such instances of the retributive justice of Heaven.

the sway of the Mahomedans, at Delhi, being merely nominal when unsupported by the Mahrattas, or other States.

At this period a formidable attack, made by the Dutch against the English in Bengal, with 700 Europeans, 800 Malay troops, and a squadron of seven ships, was defeated and destroyed by Colonel Forde, under the orders of Clive.

At the close of 1758, the eldest son of the Mogul Emperor Allumgeer II., thinking to recover the government of Bengal by force of arms, marched to attack it, but, Meer Jaffier being joined by the Company's forces under Clive, concluded an important but bloodless campaign, 24th May, 1758, during which the Mogul's son retired, for want of support, from his allies, and to the Company were ceded some districts in Bahar, along the bank of the river Ganges, yielding saltpetre in great abundance.

Shah Allum, eldest son of the late Mogul Emperor, who had been put to death by the Mahrattas, having now ascended the nominal Mogul throne, made another effort for the recovery of the ancient supremacy of his family over Bengal, on the 22d of February, 1760, aided by the Nabob, or Vizier, of Oude,* but he was defeated, at Patna, by the Company's forces, and Meer Jaffier; the latter, however, proving an indolent, tyrannical ruler, and the country rapidly deteriorating under his sway, was deposed, and his son-in-law Meer Cossim elevated in his stead.

The Mogul Emperor was finally routed by Major Carnac, and the remnant of his French auxiliaries, under M. Law,

* Oude like Bengal was one of the Viceroy, or Soubah-ships under the Government of Delhi, and is situate along the banks of the Ganges, (which bound it to the W.) between the 26th and 28.N. lat. being in length 250 miles, and in breadth 100. It was early subdued after the Mahomedan invasion of India, and remained attached to the throne of Delhi until the dissolution of the Mogul Empire on the death of Aurungzebe; the descendants of the Mahomedan Soubahs continue to govern Oude as tributary to Great Britain, with the title and style of King, but, its disturbed and ill-governed condition render its contemplated final annexation to the British dominions a matter of necessity.

captured. Meer Cossim was soon found as unsuited for his station as his father-in-law, and a series of depositions, intrigues, and contests took place; to end which the East India Company, in 1765, sent out Colonel (now Lord) Clive; whom they considered the founder of their fortunes in the East, inasmuch, as he had been the means of obtaining a re-footing in the country; of establishing an extensive commercial intercourse, and of directing the foreign influence of the native government, in whose hands still remained the administration of civil and criminal justice, the collection of the revenue, and the general powers of internal superintendance.

That the desire of the East India Company, at this period, was peace, and not conquest, is evident from the language of their numerous despatches, and if the home orders could have been followed we should now have possessed little beyond the townships of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. So early as 1768, the Court of Directors, in one of their despatches, remark, 'if we once pass these bounds we shall be led from one acquisition to another, till we shall find no security but in the subjection of the whole, which, by dividing your force, would lose us the whole, and end in our extirpation from Hindostan:'—'We utterly disapprove and condemn offensive wars,' say the Court, in another despatch. Clavering, Monson, and Francis, in their discussions with Warren Hastings, ably and strenuously advocated the same principles; and it was truly remarked at the time, that it was not ambition that first tempted the East India Company to embark in those wars,—*necessity* led the way, and conquest had now brought them to the choice of dominion, or expulsion. Self preservation first awakened them from commerce; victory gained the great advantages enjoyed; and force now could only preserve them: the East India company had, therefore, no alternative but to be all, or nothing.

Lord Clive arrived at Calcutta in May, 1765, when he learned the death of the late Nabob Meer Jaffier, the minority of his natural son, the war with, and deposition of Jaffier's son-in-law Meer Cossim, the junction of Sujah Dowlah

(the Nabob Vizier of Oude) with Shah Allum (the reigning Mogul Emperor), the repeated defeat of their united forces by General Carnac, Sir Robert Fletcher, Hector Munro, and other distinguished Bengal officers, the subsequent separation of the Mogul from Sujah Dowlah, Vizier of Oude, and his junction with the English, and the Mahratta troops under his command,—and finally, that Sujah Dowlah had voluntarily surrendered himself to the British at Allahabad.

Thither his Lordship immediately proceeded, his prophetic mind foreseeing the necessity of the East India Company assuming the sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, if they would attend to self-preservation; negociations were instantly commenced, and, after a brief period, the Mogul Emperor resigned all sovereign claims over Bengal, and part of Bahar,* and Orissa† to the East India Company, receiving in return an annual stipend of 325,000*l.* sterling; the fertile districts of Corah and Allahabad were secured to his Majesty (the revenue of which was estimated at 250,000*l.*), and his quiet occupation of the Delhi throne; to Sujah Dowlah, the Nabob, or Vizier of Oude, Lord Clive restored the whole of his territories, with the condition of paying a subsidy to the East India Company for the keeping up of a military force to protect Oude from foreign aggression, while Nujeem Ul Dowlah, a minor and natural son of Meer Jaffier the former Nabob or Soubahdar of the Bengal provinces, was allowed to retain his father's title, with a pension of 662,000*l.* a year; thus by the force of uncontrollable circumstances, the East India Company were in less than ten years elevated from refugees of an insignificant mud fort at Calcutta to sovereigns over one of the richest kingdoms in the world, extending over 150,000 square miles, and with an active, ingenious, and peaceful population of upwards of 30,000,000 souls, and estimated to produce a yearly revenue

* Situate between 22. and 27. N. L. and comprising an area of 26,000 square miles, N. and S. of the Ganges.

† Between 18. and 23. N. L. bounded by the Bay of Bengal, on the E.

of 25,000,000 of rupees! Such was the Dewany of Bengal, now known under the name of the lower, or *permanently settled provinces.**

In 1775, Asoph-ud-Dowlah, Vizier of Oude, ceded the rich province of Benares to the East India Company, in return for their aid during the preceding year, by which the vizier reduced to subjection the tributary Rohilla chiefs, a warlike and gallant tribe in the N.W. The fine territory, thus acquired, contained 12,000 square miles, between 24. and 26. N. lat., of which 10,000 comprised a fertile alluvial flat on either side of the Ganges.

WESTERN INDIA, OR UPPER BENGAL CONQUEST.†

It is as much in the course of nature for mind to prevail over matter, as strength over weakness; the continued progress of a power so civilised as England, over a country so harassed by internal dissensions, and depressed, degraded, and enfeebled by many centuries of unrelenting Moslem despotism was naturally to be expected, we accordingly find that the East India Company were next necessitated to contend not only for dominion in the W. of India, but for their actual maintenance in Bengal, with the powerful confederacy, headed by the wily chieftain Sindia, whose territories verged on the fragments of the Mogul Emperor's dominion, and who found himself placed (independent of auxiliaries) at the head of an army of 200,000 cavalry, 10 formidable brigades of in-

* It may be useful to give here the dates of the principal Governors General of Bengal, from the time of Colonel Clive to the present period.

Governors.	From	To	Governors.	From	To
Col. R. Clive	June 1758	Jan. 1760.	Marquis Cornwallis	Sept. 1786	Oct. 1793.
J. L. Holwell	Jan. 1760	July 1760.	Sir J. Shore	Oct. 1793	Mar. 1798.
H. Vansittart	July 1760	Nov. 1764.	Marquis Wellesley	May 1798	July 1805.
J. Spencer	Dec. 1764	May 1765.	Marquis Cornwallis	July 1805	Oct. 1805.
Lord Clive	May 1765	Jan. 1767.	Sir G. Barlow	Oct. 1805	July 1807.
Harry Verelst	Jan. 1767	Dec. 1769.	Earl Minto	July 1807	Oct. 1813.
J. Cartier	Dec. 1769	Apr. 1772.	Marquis Hastings	Oct. 1813	Jan. 1823.
Warren Hastings	Apr. 1772	Feb. 1785.	Lord Amherst	Aug. 1823	Apr. 1828.
Sir J. Macpherson	Feb. 1785	Sept. 1786.	Lord W. Bentinck	June 1828	1834.

† A large portion of the territory under this section embraces the new lieutenancy of Agra, or the fourth Indian Presidency; I am induced, however, to adopt this division in order to simplify the history of our acquisitions to those persons, who are not very familiar with Indian affairs.

fantry, and 500 guns, disciplined and commanded by the ablest French and German officers.

The avowed object of the fierce and sanguinary Mahrattas was the complete expulsion of the English from India, this they had for some time been endeavouring to accomplish on the western side of Hindostan, and Sindia after conquering Bundlecund, and subduing other provinces in the N.W. to his interests, at length induced the Mogul Emperor, Shah Allum, to resign his amity with the English, and to make the Mahratta chiefs and French officers masters of Agra, Delhi, and other strong places in the N.W. provinces, by which step the aged monarch forfeited the treaty concluded with Lord Clive.

The original country of the daring and subtle Mahrattas, comprehended, according to Hamilton, Candeish, Baglana, and part of Berar, extending towards the N.W. as far as Gujerat and the Nerbudda river: to the W. they possessed the narrow but strong tract of country which borders on the Concan, and stretches parallel with the sea from Surat to Canara, the whole territory of great natural strength, interspersed with mountains, defiles, and fortresses, and admirably calculated for defensive warfare. The Mahrattas seem to have been under the government of feudal chieftains until their strength was concentrated under a bold leader named Sevajee, who at his death in 1680, had extended his empire along the Malabar coast from Surat, (lat. 21.11 N.) to near Goa, (lat. 15.30 N.) and as far as the range of hills that terminate the table land forming the eastern boundary of the Concan. The territories which the Mahrattas conquered were considered as predatory acquisitions, to be held only by the sword, for to the subtle and aspiring Brahmin, war and plunder were the two great sources of revenue; hence the quartering of a Mahratta army in a province was more destructive than myriads of locusts or years of drought and pestilence, while of their rulers it has been aptly observed, that their musnuds were their horsecloths, their sceptres their swords, and their dominions the wide line of their desolating

marches. At the festival which annually took place on proceeding to collect *chout* (tribute), the chiefs cut each a handful of corn with his sword to denote the predatory object of the undertaking, and the war horses had a sheep sacrificed to each, and were sprinkled with the blood. This extraordinary people, who contested for the supremacy of India with England, on the fall of the Mogul dynasty, are in general diminutive in stature, of unparalleled cunning, brave, vindictive, and possessing more talent and independent principles than any other class of the Hindoos, save the Rajpoots.

Warren Hastings in 1780, endeavoured to check the progress of the Mahrattas on the Bombay side of India, by detaching small bodies of troops from Bengal to make incursions into the enemies' territories, a supreme controlling power being now vested in the Governor General and Council of Bengal; but on the accession of the Marquis of Wellesley to the supreme Government in 1798, that nobleman soon perceived that England must either acquire general dominion, or be engaged in a constant series of hostilities, from which wide spreading ruin would result.

In 1801, his Lordship obtained from the Nabob or Vizier of Oude (in commutation for the military subsidy which he had promised, by treaty with Lord Clive, to pay to the East India Company), the extensive provinces in the N.W. of India,—of Bareilly, (6,900 square miles,) Moradabad, (5,800 sq. miles,) Shahjehanpoor, (1,420 sq. miles,) &c. in Rohilcund; of the lower Doâb and the districts of Furruckabad, (1,850 sq. miles,) Allahabad, (2,650 sq. miles,) Cawnpoor, (2,650 sq. miles,) Goruckpoor, (9,250 sq. miles,) Azimghur, (2,240 sq. miles,) &c. embracing territory to the extent of 32,000 sq. miles, and a population of about 15,000,000 souls.

In 1803, that portion of the British army which the Marquis of Wellesley destined for the conquest of the Mahrattas in Upper Bengal, was placed under the command of General (afterwards Lord) Lake, with instructions to free the Mogul Emperor from the thraldom of Sindia, and to offer every reasonable inducement to the French officers to quit the Mahratta

service. The Mahratta and French auxiliaries were defeated by General Lake at Coel in the Doâb, (27.54 N. 78. E.) 29th of August, 1803; the strong fort of Alighur (53 miles N. of Agra,) of a square form with round bastions, a formidable ditch and glacis, and a single entrance protected by a strong ravelin, which formed the chief depôt of the enemy, was next captured after a desperate slaughter, and Lake marched with 4,500 men to give battle to 20,000 Mahratta and French, encamped in a strong position under the fortifications of the imperial city of Delhi, the ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul Empires (in lat. 28.41 N., long. 77.5 E.) General Lake on nearing the enemy pretended to fly, the Mahrattas quitted their trenches in eager pursuit of the supposed English fugitives, but the latter at a given signal instantly wheeled to the right, and by a single charge completely routed the enemy, who sustained a loss of 3,000 men in killed and wounded, and their whole train of artillery, baggage, &c. The result of the battle was soon made apparent; the aged Mogul once more released from bondage, and in a state of abject destitution, threw himself again on the humanity of the British, by whom he was once more established on the throne of his ancestral capital, with an annual stipend for himself and family of 1,200,000 rupees (together with certain privileges), and Lake entered Delhi amidst the general rejoicings of its wretched inhabitants, who for years had been the prey of war and internal rapine and feuds. This distinguished officer next marched to attack the numerous Mahratta troops posted in and around the strong and ancient fortress of Agra, on the S.W. side of the Jumna; which was reduced after a short but animated resistance, 17th October, 1803; persons and private property were respected, and 280,000*l.* public treasure was divided as prize-money among the victorious troops. The power of Sindia in Upper Bengal was now finally annihilated by the defeat of his best disciplined army, consisting of 9,000 foot, 5,000 cavalry, and a numerous train of well organised artillery, by General Lake, with a small British force, on the 1st November, 1803, after

one of the most brilliant and daring contests ever witnessed. The consequences of these extraordinary achievements was a treaty with Sindia, 30th December, 1803, by which there was ceded to the British under the Bengal Presidency, the Upper Doâb (a large territory between the rivers Ganges and Jumna) Delhi, Agra, (3,500 square miles,) Hurriana, Saharunpoor, (5,900 sq. m.) Meerut, Alighur, (3,400 sq. m.) Etawah, (3,450 sq. m.) Cuttack, (9,040 sq. m.) Balasore, Juggernath, &c. (8,260 sq. m.); the power of the French and Mahrattas in the N.W. was destroyed, and the decayed but still respected representative of a long line of monarchs was secured in peace and comfort on the titular musnud of Ackbar.

The tranquil possession of these fine provinces by the East India Company was for a time interrupted by the celebrated Holkar, who, after the downfal of Sindia, endeavoured to rally the remaining branches of the Mahratta confederacy for the purpose of "overwhelming the British by repeated attacks of his army, like the waves of the sea."* The standing army of Holkar, while professing peace, was 150,000 cavalry, 40,000 well disciplined foot, 200 pieces of artillery, and a numerous corps of auxiliaries, by which latter he was enabled to carry on a devastating and desultory war for some time. After attempting the recapture of Delhi, his army, subsequent to a series of desperate actions with Lord Lake, General Frazer and Colonels Ochterlony, Monson and Burns, was finally routed, 17th November, 1804, by the gallant Lake, who, whether with cavalry or infantry, invariably gained the day by trusting to the nerve of a Briton at the sabre or bayonet point. A furious charge by the English cavalry cut to pieces 3,000 of the Indian horse; the remaining troops of Holkar escaped by a rapid flight to their infantry at the fortress of Deeg,† which Lake invested, breached after ten days cannonading,

* Vide Holkar's letter to General Wellesley.

† The fortress of Deeg is situate in lat. 27.30. N. long. 77.12. E., 57 miles N. W. of Agra city. In 1760 it was strongly fortified by Sooraj Mull, the Jaut Rajah, but in 1776 captured after twelve months siege by Nudjiff Khan. It now belongs to the Rajah of Bhurtpore.

and carried by storm with almost incredible intrepidity on the night of the 23rd of November. Holkar took refuge in the fortress of Bhurtpore,* a vast mud fort, which, with the town, is nearly eight miles in circumference, flanked with numerous bastions at short intervals, well defended with immense cannon and surrounded by a very wide and deep fosse. The garrison was complete, amply provisioned and confident in the impregnability of their ramparts. Lake and his little band of heroes sat down before this formidable place on the 3rd of January, 1805; the trenches were soon opened, but wherever a breach was made the defenders speedily filled it up or fortified it with stockades, and, in addition to the most galling and destructive artillery and musketry, showered on the besiegers logs of burning wood and hot ashes, lighted bales of cotton steeped in oil, earthen pots filled with fire and combustibles of every kind. Four times did the British troops attempt to storm the breach, and four times were they obliged to retire, staggering under the (to them) terrible loss of upwards of 3,000 men of the flower of the army; and here let it be recorded, that his Majesty's 75th and 76th regiments, (heretofore deemed like Ney 'the bravest of the brave,' and like Murat always foremost in the heady current of battle,) became panic struck at the fury of their enemies, and refused to follow their officers, until, shamed by seeing the East India Company's 12th regiment of Bengal Sepoys once more heroically plant their colours on the enemy's walls, and stung by the merited reproaches of their General, they loudly implored to be permitted to wash the stains from their honour in the fourth attack, which, notwithstanding their desperate valour,

* BHURTPORE. Lat. 27.17. N. long. 77.23. E., 31 miles W. by N. from Agra. When Lord Lake approached the fortress, a large expanse of water at the N.W. side of the town instantly disappeared, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole lake had been admitted into the ditch that surrounds the town and fort. The carnage during the siege was enormous, considering the small force of the besiegers; the first storming party lost 456, the second 591, the third 894, the fourth 987, which together with 172 casualties, made a total of killed and wounded of 3,100 of the flower of the small British army!

was still unsuccessful. The Rajah of Bhurtpore foreseeing by the persevering gallantry of Lake that nothing would induce him to abandon his purpose, dispatched his son to the British camp with the keys of the fortress: a treaty was concluded, 17th April; Holkar compelled to quit the territories, and the Rajah was obliged to pay two million rupees towards defraying the expenses of the war; his son was given in hostage of his pacific intentions; and Holkar, after several gallant but fruitless efforts against Lord Lake in the field, was so reduced as to flee almost unattended for life.

The comprehensive and unavoidable policy of the Marquis of Wellesley, which has not been sufficiently done justice to by Indian historians or statesmen, was now laid aside by the Marquis of Cornwallis, who resumed the supreme government in July, 1805, but died on proceeding to the seat of war in the month of October in the same year, while his successor Sir George Barlow was unable to understand the ideas of future peace and stability contemplated by the Wellesley administration. Lord Cornwallis tried in vain to introduce the principle of European treaties into Indian diplomacy, the failure of which was exemplified in the triple alliance between the British government, the Nizam and the Peishwa; while the system of defensive subsidiary alliances from not being until of late carried far enough, was equally unproductive of beneficial results.*

Through the exertions of Lord Lake, whose talents in the cabinet were as useful as his tactics and bravery in the field were remarkable, the fruits of the past were not entirely lost: Sindia and Holkar were admitted to peace on favourable terms, and the flame of the slumbering volcano was for the present suppressed only to burst out however with renewed vigour in other places and at more convenient periods, which was nevertheless effectively and finally suppressed by the military prescience of the chivalrous Marquis of Hastings.

* The war of 1817 demonstrated the lasting advantages of the comprehensive policy of the Marquis of Wellesley, the key-stones of whose political arch rested on Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

The Ghoorkhas, a warlike but uncivilized tribe who had possessed themselves of the beautiful vallies of Nepaul, began encroachments on the whole north frontier of the British territories, under a brave and skilful Chief (Ameer Sing) in 1814, and without any previous intimation, attacked and massacred the people of two thannahs or stations in Goruckpoor and Sarun; upon which the Marquis of Hastings sent against the invaders a force of thirty thousand men, who met with various successes against the Nepaulese and Ghoorkha hill forts which were valiantly defended: the contest was brought to a successful issue by the activity, skill and sagacity of Sir David Ochterlony and the brave General Gillespie, who fell at the head of a storming party when cheering on his men before the Fort of Kalunga.* The Nepaulese were glad to ratify a treaty on the 4th March, 1816, which they had evaded the preceding year;—by which the E. I. Company obtained possession of the entire province of Kumaon, (7,000 square miles) a portion of Garhwal, (3,000 square miles) the valley of the Dheera Dhoon, with the adjacent mountainous districts of Jounsar and Bawar, together with Sabbathoo and other tracts on the skirts of the Himalaya, and in the delta of the rivers Jumna and Sutlej; and the territories of several Hill Chiefs were brought under British protection; the Company also obtained undisputed possession of a long line of forest and pasture land, extending along the base of the Himalaya Mountains, termed *Tarryani* which defined the northern boundary of their dominions, and enabled them to open commercial communications with China and Tartary. But the misfortunes arising from the defensive policy of the amiable Lord Cornwallis were not yet terminated. The Pindaries, a predatory body of mounted

* Situated on the verge of a ridge of hills, two miles and a half N.E. of the town of Deyrah, capital of the Valley or *Doon*, lat. 30.20. N. long. 78.5. E. at an elevation above the sea of 2,326 feet. The British forces under Gillespie and Manly in 1814, lost more officers and men before this small stone fortress than they would have suffered in several pitched battles. The fortress is now razed.

robbers, who could collect under one of their chiefs thirty thousand cavalry! and who were secretly favoured by the yet unannihilated Mahratta confederacy, made several plundering incursions into the British territories, killing and wounding many hundred peaceable British subjects, and carrying off and destroying property to the amount of several hundred thousand pounds. These desperate freebooters originated in the province of Malwa, where they first occupied the country in the vicinity of Nemawur, Kantapoor, Goonas, Beresha, and part of the Bilsah and Bhopaul territories, but gradually extended themselves to the centre of this fine district. The Pindaries were principally composed of Mahomedans, but, their leaders, although true Moslems, admitted into their bands all the discontented and restless spirits which the previous disbanding of the large armies of India left without occupation. They systematically carried on a war of plunder and devastation, and terrified the neighbouring princes into subsidizing them as a guarantee against invasion. As an instance of the Pindarie marauding, it may be mentioned that a body of these bandits entered the British territory of Ganjam in January, 1817, destroyed property to the amount of £250,000. burnt two hundred and sixty-nine houses, and plundered six thousand two hundred and three mansions; and of the sufferers by the robbers one hundred and eighty-three were killed, five hundred and five were wounded, and three thousand six hundred and three subjected to torture. The scene of these depredations was not far distant from Madras or Calcutta, and in the previous year Guntoor in lat. 16.17. N. long. 90.32 E., underwent a more disastrous visitation from these merciless destroyers of peace and civilization. The Marquis of Hastings in 1817, took the field against the Pindaries and their abettors, the Mahratta Confederacy, at the head of an army, which presented a strong contrast to the handful of British troops which Lords Clive and Lake had commanded; it consisted of 81,000 regular infantry, 33,000 cavalry, and a numerous and efficient artillery, altogether forming a force the like of which had never been seen on the plains of Hindostan.

The events which followed afford matter for voluminous history, suffice it to say, that before the grand army under the noble Marquis and his gallant and sagacious coadjutors, Generals Malcolm, Smith, Hislop, Doveton, Keir, &c. broke up in 1819, the Pindaries were utterly annihilated: the Mahratta confederacy destroyed, and the following territories added to the Bengal Presidency, by conquest as well as by subsequent arrangements. Districts on the Nerbudda river to the extent of 29,800 square miles; Sumbalpore and some pergunnahs on the N.W. frontier of Bengal; Khandah in Bundelcund; Ajmere, and part of Mairwarrah; part of Nimah; Bairsea, Shoojawulpore, and the fortress of Hatrass in Alighur; while the following states of central India became tributary to the East India Company, receiving protection and guarantee in acknowledgment for British supremacy, viz. Jyepore, Joudpore, Oudeypore, Boondee, Kotah, Pertabghur, Rutlana, Banswarra, and Doongurpore. The peace of the N.W. provinces of India has ever since remained undisturbed, with the exception of a disturbance in Bhurtpore in March 1825, when Durjunt Sal took forcible possession of the infant Raja, murdered his uncle and followers, and notwithstanding the repeated mild persuasions of Lord Amherst, who appears to have been desirous of following the policy of Lord Cornwallis, treated the British power and authority with the utmost contempt. Those who know any thing of the nature of the English dominion in Hindostan, will admit the necessity of removing instantly an unfavourable impression from a people who are too apt to consider concession or mildness as the result of indecision or fear. To prevent any thing like the resistance which Lord Lake met with in 1805, Lord Combermere was ordered to attack this strong fortress with an army of 25,000 of the most efficient troops, and a powerful train of battering artillery: his Lordship invested Bhurtpore 23rd December, 1825; the works since the former attack had been considerably strengthened, and it was soon found that the largest cannon balls made no impression on mud walls 60 feet thick; a mine was therefore sprung, by which a breach was effected on the 17th January 1826, and the fort stormed

and carried the following morning, after a desperate but ineffectual resistance, in which the British had 61 Europeans and 42 natives killed, and 283 Europeans and 183 natives wounded; while the loss of the garrison was 4000, almost all killed. The State of Bhurtpore was charged with the extra expenses of this contest, amounting to 2,439,173 rupees, and the young Rajah (who is a promising prince) was installed on the 5th February, 1826. The fortress (as regarded its principal bastions, curtains and other important parts) was razed and with its fall terminated a series of intrigues for the destruction of the British power which had been some time organizing in the N.W. provinces.

BURMESE CONQUEST.—It became a matter of self-preservation to humble another Asiatic power, ere Bengal was secure from invasion. During half a century a kingdom had been gradually rising and extending on the south-eastern frontier, named Birmah, whose tone, always haughty to the English, became at last insulting and menacing. The origin of this nation is thus traced:—In the middle of the sixteenth century the regions which lie between the south-eastern provinces of British India, Yunan in China, and the extremity of the Malacca Peninsula, were occupied by four powerful nations, known to Europeans as Birmah (or Ava), Pegu, Siam, and Arracan. Devastating wars were carried on between these States, particularly between the Peguers (or Talliens) and the Burmese. During the seventeenth century the Burmese held the Peguers in complete subjection; but, in 1751, the Peguers, aided by the Portuguese and Dutch, conquered the Burmese, and took final possession of Ava. Headed, however, by the celebrated Alompra, the Burmese again subdued the Peguers, and the Alompra dynasty was established in Ava. In 1767, an army of 50,000 Chinese was destroyed on its entrance into the dominions of Ava, and from that period the Burmese continued extending their conquests, having captured Cassay and Munipoor in 1774; Arracan in 1783; and from the Siamese in 1784 to 1793, the provinces of Tavoy, Tenasserim, Junk-Ceylon, and Mergui Isles. These acquisitions so inflated the vanity of the Burmese, that the most

extravagant schemes were entertained of the conquest of Hindostan, and the utter expulsion of the English from India. Intriguers were sent by the Burmese to excite the N.W. provinces of India to revolt against the British supremacy; and, in 1814, a confederation of all the native princes of India was attempted to be effected by the Burmese, the object of which was the destruction of the English power in the East: the King of Ava gave out that he intended to make a pilgrimage to Gaya and Benares, at the head of 40,000 men; emissaries were dispatched into the Seik country, *via* Dacca, while the Shabundar of Arracan visited Madras and Trincomalee, to gather information as to the politics of the S. of India. These projects were defeated, but the Burmese went on extending their conquests over the petty States S. of the Brahmaputra, and establishing a strong and permanent military force along the N.E. quarter of the Bengal province, ready at a moment's warning to commence an inroad on the unprotected British possessions. Indeed from 1795, when the Burman monarch marched 5,000 troops across the Bengal frontier, to capture some of his refugee subjects, who had fled from his tyranny, to the year 1822, when His Majesty set up a claim to the petty Isle of Shapuree in the province of Bengal, on the Chittagong frontier, recriminations had been going on between the two governments. The intended invasion of the Burmese, in 1795, was foiled by General Erskine; in 1818, the Marquis of Hastings, by his policy,* diverted another attack, but on the retirement of that great statesman,

* While we were engaged in the Mahratta and Pindarie war, the Marquis of Hastings received a rescript from the Burmese Monarch, requiring us to surrender all provinces E. of Bagrutty; Lord Hastings sent back the Envoy, stating, that an answer should be sent through another channel; a special messenger was therefore dispatched to the King of Burmah, to declare that the Gov.-Gen. was too well acquainted with the wisdom of H. M. to be the dupe of the gross forgery attempted to be palmed upon him, and that he therefore transmitted to the King the document fabricated in his august name—hoping also that those who had endeavoured to sow dissensions between the two Powers would be condignly punished; the subsequent defeat of the Mahrattas prevented the repetition of this insolent threat.

the Burmese threatened to march into the Bengal provinces with fire and sword, to the plunder of Calcutta. In 1825 the unprovoked aggressions of this turbulent nation were met by a force at Chittagong, while a large British armament proceeded to Rangoon, the naval capital of Burmah (lat. 16.35. N., long. 96.25. E.), captured it, and after a series of hard fought actions, and much privation and distress, forced the Burmese to sue for peace in 1826, when the English troops were almost within sight of the capital (Ava). By the treaty of Yandaboo, the Burmese resigned all claim to the conquests which for years they had been making in Assam, Cachar, Gentiah, and Munipoor; the provinces of Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and Martaban, S. of the Saluen River, comprising 50,000 square miles, together with the Islands Cheduba and Ramree, were ceded to the East India Company; and 10,000,000 of rupees in cash were paid to the Company by instalments, as part indemnity to defray the expenses of war, which the rash ambition of his Burmese Majesty had provoked.

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Southern Indian Presidency is called after the name of its capital, on the Coromandel Coast, in lat. 13.5. N., long. 80.21. E., which to the extent of five miles along shore, and one mile inland, was ceded to the East India Company, A.D. 1639, by the reigning Prince of Bijanagur, with permission to erect a fort, which was immediately commenced under the designation of *Fort St. George*. In 1653, Madras was raised to the rank of Presidency, the military force of which was only 26 soldiers, which the Court of Directors, in 1654, ordered to be still further reduced to *ten*. The native population soon assembled round the English fortress; and, in 1687, the census of the inhabitants of the fortress of Fort St. George, the city of Madras, and the adjacent villages within the Company's boundaries, amounted to 300,000 persons. In 1702, Madras was besieged by Daoud Khan, one of Aurung-

zebe's generals; but a more formidable power was soon to contest the footing of Englishmen on the Coromandel Coast. The war which broke out between England and France, in 1744, was carried on as fiercely in the E. as in the W., and the ambitious, unprincipled, but talented Monsieur Dupleix spared no efforts, either by intriguing with the native princes, or by actual force, to root the English out of all their factories in India. A strong military and naval French force, under the command of the brave and high-minded Labourdonnais, beseiged Madras on the 7th September, 1746, when the English garrison amounted to but 200 soldiers: after a severe bombardment of five days capitulations were entered into, that Labourdonnais might enter within the four ill-constructed bastions which defended the town; but that, after taking possession of the Company's goods, &c., Madras should be restored on payment of a ransom. This stipulation was broken by Labourdonnais's superior, Dupleix (then Governor of Pondicherry), and Madras remained in the occupation of the French until the peace of Aix-la-chapelle, when it was restored to the East India Company in 1749.

While Madras was in the occupation of the French, the presidency of the East India Company was carried on at Fort St. David, or Negapatam, a fortress on the sea coast of the Carnatic, 16 miles S. of Pondicherry, and 100 miles S.S.W. from Fort St. George, or Madras; lat. 11.45. N. long. 79.50. E. At this station the E. I. Company had established a factory in 1691, and they subsequently purchased a tract of territory larger than their settlement at Madras. M. Dupleix next attempted to drive the English out of Fort St. David; but his army of 1,700 Europeans was defeated by about 200 British, among whom was *Ensign* (afterwards Lord) Clive, who, after the capture of Madras, escaped in the disguise of a Moor to Fort St. David.

Several severe contests between the French and English took place, until, as before stated, peace in Europe allowed the Company to resume possession of their Presidency at Madras; but, although hostilities had ceased between the

rival nations in Europe, it was far otherwise in India, where the French and English alternately struggled and gained the ascendancy in the native councils and contests of the Carnatic,*—the French long maintaining the upper hand, until the daring genius of Clive, and the skill of Major Laurence, contributed materially to diminish it; while, in the Deccan, M. De Bussy obtained firm possession of an extensive country, 600 miles in extent, reaching from Medapilly to the Pagoda of Juggernaut, with an annual revenue of nearly 1,000,000*l.* sterling.

On the breaking out of the war, in 1756, between France and England, the celebrated and unfortunate Lally was sent out as Governor of Pondicherry, with a large armament, for the purpose of utterly extirpating the English in Hindostan; and the very night Lally landed, he directed the march of troops for the attack of Fort St. David, which was taken and razed to the ground, on the 1st of June, 1758, after which the conqueror proceeded with 3,500 European, 2,000 sepoy infantry, and 2,000 European and native cavalry to the siege of Madras, which, defended by 1,758 Europeans and 2,424 native troops, withstood the most desperate attacks for two months, until relieved by the arrival of six English ships, with 600 fresh troops.†

The French retreated precipitately from before Madras, and the English in turn became assailants. Colonel Coote

* This vast territory, formerly comprising the dominions and dependencies of the Nabob of Arcot, extends from 8. to 16. N. lat. stretching from the southern frontier of Guntoor Circar to Cape Comorin, a distance of 500 miles, with an unequal but average breadth of 75 miles. Heretofore the Carnatic was held by a number of petty Rajahs, with whom the French alternately intrigued in their efforts for complete supremacy, a point indeed which the wily Dupleix all but gained.

† During the siege the fort fired 26,554 rounds from their cannon, 7,502 shells from their mortars, 1,990 hand grenades were thrown, 200,000 musquetry cartridges expended, and 1,763 barrels of gunpowder; 13 officers were killed, 14 wounded, and 4 taken prisoners; of the European troops, upwards of 200 were killed, and 140 made prisoners; of the Sepoys and Lascars, 145 were killed, and 440 deserted.

pursued and defeated Lally at Wandiwash,* from whence the remnants of the French sought shelter in Pondicherry, which, in September, 1760, was closely blockaded by the East India Company's troops and His Majesty's vessels by land and sea; the trenches were opened under Colonel Coote, 12th January, and, on the 14th, Lally and his garrison were prisoners. From this period the downfal of French influence was progressive, while that of the English became as rapidly ascendant.

In 1763, the East India Company obtained from the Nabob of the Carnatic, in return for services rendered to that prince and his father, a district in the Carnatic of 2,460 square miles, called the '*Jaghire*' (Chingleput), which is bounded on the E. by the bay of Bengal, between Nellore and Arcot. The country was rented to the Nabob, on renewed leases, until 1780, when the entire management was placed under the Madras government.

The next territory acquired by the East India Company in the south of India, was that of Guntoor, comprehending an area of 2,500 square miles (the fifth district in the northern circars) which was acquired from the Mogul, in 1765; but not taken possession of by the British authorities until 1786, and then only on the payment of an annual tribute to the Nizam of 600,000 rupees, which the East India Company finally redeemed in 1823, by the payment of 1,200,000 rupees to the Nizam at Hydrabad.

The wide spreading and devastating ambition of a fierce adventurer, in his endeavours to expel the English from the Carnatic, became the means of further extending the territorial dominions of the East India Company. Hyder Ali, the founder of the Mysore dynasty and kingdom, was originally a private soldier in a corps raised by his elder brother; and, for his gallantry at the seige of Deonhully (23 miles N.N.E. from Bangalore), he was entrusted with the command of 500 infantry and 50 horse. His character is described to have been a composi-

* In the Carnatic, 73 miles S. W. of Madras, lat. 12.30. N. long. 79.37. E.

tion of courage, cunning, and cruelty; equally prodigal of faith and of blood—equally victorious in the use of intrigues and of arms. He could neither read nor write; but his memory was so tenacious, and his sagacity so great, that no secretary would venture to practice a deception on him. His father died in 1734, in the humble situation of a Naick of revenue Peons, leaving his family destitute and friendless; but Hyder Ali came on the stage when anarchy reigned in Mysore, and when he who was the strongest and the most cunning and daring, might easily usurp the highest station in the kingdom. From the command of a few hundred men, he quickly raised his force to 2,000 horse and 5,000 foot, with a small artillery. By degrees he obtained assignments of more than half the revenues of the kingdom, and ultimately taking advantage of the feeble state of the government, he proclaimed himself ruler in Seringapatam; reduced the Rajah of Mysore to the condition of a pensioner, shut up his enemies in cages, strengthened his fortresses, raised a large army, and vigilantly superintended the administration of the kingdom, whose affairs he had usurped the government of. Like Napoleon, he had an inveterate hostility to the English, because they treated him as an usurper; and he owned the ruin of his family to military co-operation with the French, for the destruction of the British in India.

After conquering every independent Hindoo state in the south, or raising them into hostile confederacy against the British power, Hyder approached close to Madras to attack it in 1767; but, deterred by its strength, the tyrant desolated the Company's Jaghire, or territory (Chingleput), in 1768, when he ravaged it with fire and sword, leaving little indication of its ever having been inhabited, save in the unhappy spectacle of the bones of massacred thousands strewed over their smouldering habitations. In June, 1780, Hyder marched from his capital of Seringapatam, at the head of the finest army ever before seen in the south of India,* with the avowed

* It consisted of 28,000 cavalry, 15,000 regular infantry, 40,000 irregulars, 2,000 French rocket men, 4,000 pioneers, and 400 Europeans.

purpose of annihilating the English, and, before the latter were aware of their situation, columns of smoke, arising from the desolated Carnatic, were seen approaching Madras. The success of Hyder was nearly as complete in the south as that of Surajee Dowlah had been at Cossimbuzar and Calcutta; with a velocity and daring like that of Napoleon Buonaparte, Hyder interposed his whole force between the small armies of Colonel Baillie and Sir Hector Monro, who were endeavouring to join each other; Colonel Baillie was defeated by the Mysorean cavalry, Sir Hector Munro retreated, and Hyder reduced Arcot, 3d Nov. 1781, and laid siege to Wandiwash, Vellore, Chingleput, and other strongholds in the Carnatic.

The Bengal Presidency now afforded to Madras a return for the assistance which the latter had sent, under Clive, for the re-capture of the Fort of Calcutta, and Sir Eyre Coote, with 560 Europeans, and a party of Sepoys, were ordered by Warren Hastings for the relief of the sister Presidency. The war was carried on for some time with little decided advantage on either side, notwithstanding Hyder had received a valuable reinforcement of 3,000 French troops from Europe, with the most skilful officers at their head.

The East India Company struggled not for conquests, but for existence, and, on the death of Hyder in 1782, after reigning 21 years, a peace was concluded with his son Tippoo Saib, whose throne, although the most powerful in the East, began now to be shaken by the Mahratta chieftains. The wily Sultan, after defeating the latter, made a peace, and turned his arms towards the subjugation of Travancore, situate between the 8th and 10th degrees N. lat., which, amidst every shock, had hitherto maintained its independence and neutrality. A treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, having been entered into between this little state and the English, the unprincipled and faithless disposition of Tippoo became so apparent, that Lord Cornwallis resolved on putting a stop to the ambitious designs of a man whose words were as false as his cruelty was odious. After a desperate and hazardous campaign, during which Tippoo shewed the most

daring courage, Lord Cornwallis invested the formidable fortress of Seringapatam, in February, 1792, with 11,000 Europeans, 30,000 regular sepoys, 42 battery guns, and 44 field pieces, and in front of which Tippoo gave battle, with 50,000 chosen infantry, and 5,000 cavalry, strongly intrenched and defended.

The British, as usual, notwithstanding their inferior numbers, carried all before them, from the commencement of a moonlight attack, at eight P.M. and the morning's dawn, beheld the Mysorean tyrant a fugitive, with the loss of 23,000 of his troops, in killed, wounded, and missing. Tippoo was glad to sue for and accept peace, by the surrender of half his dominions, the payment of 4,000,000*l.* and the delivery of his two sons as hostages for the quiet fulfilment of the conditions imposed.

By the treaty signed 18th May, 1792, the Company obtained possession of the frontier territory of Baramahal on the east, in the south Dindigul, on the west a great part of Malabar, including Telicherry and Calicut, and part of Canara, &c. But the restless spirit of Tippoo was not to be quenched by misfortune; in 1794 he received back his children, and immediately commenced secret negociations with the French (then at war with England) for the renewal of his purpose of 'utterly destroying the English in India.'*

The new Governor General (Marquis of Wellesley) saw immediately on his arrival in India (1798) that although his most positive instructions from the Company were, if possible, not to wage war with any native prince, nor to extend the British Dominions in the E., yet that if existence were to be preserved, particularly in the S. of India, the coalition between Tippoo and the French must be broken, and a blow struck which would prevent the former continuing to stir up all the native powers against the English. Tippoo, under the promised aid of 30,000 men from the French Directory, and with the hope that Napoleon's expedition to Egypt would not be

* Language of Tippoo's secret intercepted circular to the different Courts of India while professing the greatest friendship for England.

fruitless as regarded its ultimate destination, had joyfully hailed the planting of a tree of liberty in his capital surmounted by the '*bonnet rouge*,' while his jacobinical friends hailed the Mysorean Despot on his own public parade as 'Citizen Tippoo!'—To have waited the consummation of the anticipations of the crafty son of Hyder would have been political idiotcy; the Governor General therefore declared war against Mysore in February, 1799, previously causing the disarming of a French organized army of 14,000 men at Hydrabad. The army under General Harris, consisting of 4,381 European, and 10,695 native infantry—884 European 1,751 native cavalry; 2,400 Lascars and pioneers, 608 artillery, and 104 pieces of cannon, besides 6,000 foot and 10,000 horse, under the Nizam's British officers, together with 6,000 soldiers which advanced from Malabar under General Stuart, was in a fine state of equipment, and had in its ranks one who ever after carried with him the fortune of the day, and who now in his very first attack on Tippoo's right wing evinced well merited confidence in the British bayonets, which he has always proudly boasted have won him every victory. Colonel Wellesley led the attack on the Sultan's army which lay encamped within 30 miles of Seringapatam; a large column of Tippoo's best disciplined troops advanced to meet him in noble style; the English infantry under Wellesley stood fast, receiving their opponents' fire until they arrived within 60 yards, when the English rushed to the charge with an impetus which it was impossible for the Mysoreans to withstand; they quivered under the dreadful shock for a moment, then broke their ranks and were completely routed by General Floyd with the cavalry. Tippoo made little further resistance in the field, but threw himself into his strong capital with the *elite* of his forces; and on the 5th of April, the British encamped on the western side of the far-famed fortress of Seringapatam, situate at the W. end of a small island (lat. 20.25 N., long. 76.45 E.) four miles long by one and a half broad, surrounded by the river Cauvery, occupying about a mile in extent, and principally remarkable for exhibiting the

long, strait walls, square bastions, and high and steep glacis of the Hindoo engineers. The siege of Seringapatam went forward with determined rapidity, though peace was offered to Tippoo when he solicited terms on the 26th of April, which, however, he subsequently rejected:—On the 4th of May, at 1 p. m., the breach being completed in the curtain, a storming party of 4,000 British, led by the gallant General Baird, moved to the attack; Baird had been four years a prisoner in the fortress under Hyder's tyranny, and was in some measure acquainted with the *locale*:—the parapet was speedily gained,—'*Come, my brave fellows,*' said their heroic leader, in the presence of both armies—'*follow me, and prove yourselves worthy the name of British soldiers!*' The appeal was nobly answered: after a desperate but useless resistance, the Mysoreans were totally routed; and when the terrible conflict had ceased, the lifeless body of Tippo Saib was found buried beneath a piled heap of wounded, dead and dying men and horses, and the dynasty of Hyder Ali had ceased to reign. The Marquis of Wellesley took possession of the fortress for the East India Company, also the sea coast of Canara, the district of Coimbatore and the passes of the Ghauts; and of a portion of the recent Mysore kingdom a native state was founded, at whose head was placed the ancient and much respected Rajah of Mysore's family, who had long lingered in obscurity and poverty. The native state then formed has continued to nearly the present period a protected one by the British Government, but of late years, particularly since 1810, its internal administration had become so bad, and the disorders and unhappiness of the people so great, that the Court of Directors, by a despatch dated 6th March, 1833, authorised the Madras government to bring under the *direct* management of the servants of the Company the whole of the territories of Mysore. In 1800, the fruitful districts of Bellary and Cuddapah, which fell to the Nizam on the conquest of Tippoo, were ceded by his Highness to the East India Company by treaty; and in 1801 the Nabob of the Carnatic ceded to the Company the districts of Palnaud, Nellore, (7,930

square miles,) Angole, Arcot province, (13,620 square miles,) the Pollams of Chittoor and the divisions of Satiraid Tinnevelly (5,700 square miles,) and Madura, 10,700 square miles.) These possessions, together with those mentioned in the foregoing pages, the then seaport fortress of Negapatam, captured from the Dutch in 1781, but now delapidated, and some minor places, containing altogether an area of 142,000 square miles, and a population of upwards of fifteen million, form the large dominion under the government of the Madras Presidency.

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY,

This Presidency derives its name from the small island or barren rocks of Bombay,* situate on the Malabar coast in lat. 18.56 N., long. 72.57 E. being about ten miles long and three broad. It was formerly under the Mogul dominion, but ceded to the Portuguese in 1530, by whom a fort was erected on the S.E. extremity of the island, its fine harbour indicating it as a desirable place for establishing a factory. In 1661 the island was ceded by Portugal to Great Britain, as a portion of the Infanta Catharine's fortune on her marriage with Charles II. The mortality of the king's troops was so great, and there being no advantage derived by the Crown from the possession of Bombay, the expenditure being greater than the receipts, his Majesty, in 1668, transferred the island to the Hon. E. I. Company in free and common soccage as the Manor of East Greenwich, for which the E. I. Company became bound to pay the annual rent of 10*l.* in gold on the 30th of September in each year. In 1681, Bombay was a dependency of the E. I. Company's settlement of Surat, but in 1683 it was erected into a presidency, and in 1686 became the head station of the English on the western side of India, the seat of government being transferred thither from Surat, the capital of Gujerat, in lat. 21.11 N., long. 73.7 E., where the E. I. Company had their principal factory since 1612. Until the beginning of the 18th century, the settlement of Bombay

* Called by the Portuguese Bom Bahia (good bay).

languished in consequence of the ravages of the plague, civil dissensions among the authorities and the piracy carried on by Englishmen not in the service of the E. I. Company, which, indeed, caused the Mogul's admiral to invest Bombay in 1688, by whom it was very closely pressed, Mahim, Mazagong and Sion being captured, and the governor and garrison besieged in the fort. Submission, however, being made to Aurengzebe, his forces were withdrawn from the settlement. In 1776 the island of Salsette, (long possessed by the Portuguese, but wrested from them by the Mahrattas A. D. 1750, from whom it was captured by the British in 1773,) 18 miles long and 14 broad, (which has since been joined to Bombay by a causeway,) was obtained by cession from the celebrated intriguer Ragoba or Rugonath Rao, on condition of restoring him to the supreme power as Peishwa or head of the Mahratta confederacy. In order to understand the origin of the Mahratta war, it may be necessary to premise that this wily chieftain was uncle and guardian to Nareen Rao, a minor, who, on the death of his brother Madhooras Ballajee, (styled the Great) succeeded to the office of Peishwa, or head of the Mahratta confederacy of feudal barons or chiefs. The minor was murdered, as was said, at the instigation of his uncle Ragoba, who in turn became Peishwa for a few months, until it was discovered that the widow of the murdered youth was pregnant. A considerable number of the Mahratta chiefs then confederated—expelled Ragoba and formed a regency until the accouchement of the widow should take place, and the son or daughter of Nareen Rao be enabled to assume the government. Ragoba fled to Surat, denied all participation in the death of his nephew, questioned the legitimacy of the widow's offspring, and solicited the aid of the English to recover the Peishwaship. Hence the subsequent contests and wars with the Mahrattas.

On the downfal of the Mysore dynasty in the S. of India, it was deemed necessary by the Marquis of Wellesley to curb the domineering power of the Mahrattas under Dowlut Rao Sindiah, Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar. A few words re-

specting Sindiah and Holkar will, therefore, be necessary. Ranojee Sindiah, the founder of the Sindiah family, first distinguished himself as a leader of the Mahratta army in 1738, when its successes against the Imperial forces of the Delhi Emperor, led to the foundation of the Mahratta States of Sindiah, Holkar and Puar. Mahadjee Sindiah was his fourth but illegitimate son, and on the death of his four brothers succeeded to his father's jagheer or estates. He died in 1794, and was one of the most powerful native princes of his day; his whole life was passed in the camp devoted to the improvement of his army; his infantry and artillery being formed on the model of the European troops, and his cavalry after the graceful manner of Mahomedans and Rajpoots. He was succeeded by his grand nephew and adopted son Dowlut Rao Sindiah, whose army constituted a disciplined force of 15,000 infantry, divided into 72 battalions, under European officers, with a park of 500 pieces of artillery, and a numerous cavalry. He died 21st March, 1827, after having for 30 years played a prominent military part in Indian affairs:—On his death, his army, at the lowest computation (inclusive of the British contingent and garrisons to forts) consisted of 14,000 infantry, 10,000 cavalry, and 250 pieces of ordnance, and he left territories capable of realizing 14,000,000 rupees per annum, if properly managed. Mulhar Rao Holkar, the originator of his own powerful dynasty, was the son of a shepherd, who, in addition to tending sheep, gained a livelihood as a weaver of cumlies (native blankets.) From the command of 25 horse, under Kantajee Kuddum, he rose until we find him, in 1721, at the head of 100 horse in the Peishwa's service, whose principal leader he became in 1732, when for the support of his troops, Indore, &c. was assigned to him. He died in 1765, one of the most distinguished Mahratta leaders of his day, leaving possessions rated at a gross annual revenue of 7,500,000 rupees. *Jeswunt Rao Holkar*, the formidable chieftain alluded to under Western India, was the illegitimate son of Tokajee Holkar, whom the celebrated Ahlya Baye, widow of Khunda Rao, had raised to the command of her army

although no relative. *Jeswunt Rao Holkar* raised himself to the Imperial power by poisoning his brother and nephew together with the wife of the former; he died mad in 1811. His invasion of the British possessions in Hindostan was at the head of an army of 90,000 men, of whom 19,000 were in brigades of disciplined infantry, and 7,000 in artillery.

It was against these powerful Chieftains that the battle of Assaye was fought on the 23rd September, 1803, (in which General Wellesley with a force of 4,500 men, of whom only 2,000 were Europeans, attacked the confederate disciplined forces of 50,000 men, assisted by a well organized French artillery and 10,000 infantry, disciplined and officered by Frenchmen), which may be said to have given supremacy to the British influence in the west of India.

On the termination of hostilities in December, 1803, with the Mahratta Dowlut Rao Sindiah, the valuable districts of Broach, (sixteen hundred square miles) in the province of Gujerat, having the gulph of Cambay on the west, was ceded to the Bombay Presidency; as was also the strong fortress of Ahmednuggur,* in the province of Aurungabad, which had been previously captured by General Wellesley in August, 1803, together with some other places of minor importance. Cutch Province next claims attention: the Government of this maritime district consists of a Rao, whose power is partly hereditary, and partly elective at the will of the the Jahrejah Blugad or brotherhood of chiefs. In 1801 and 1804 the Cutch State sent deputations to Bombay, but no alliance was then formed; in 1809, a wily adventurer had the control of the Government, and it became the hot-bed of pirates and robbers, who were a serious annoyance to the British, and a treaty was entered into to prevent predatory incursions in our own and our allies' territories. From this period the

* Lat. 19.15. N. long. 74.55. E. distant from Bombay 181 miles, and from Calcutta 1,119 miles. The fort is entirely of stone, of an oval shape, and about one mile in circumference. There are a great many martello towers and a glacis to cover the base of the wall; the ditch is deep and broad, and the whole area within vaulted for stores.

contentions for the Sovereignty and the disorders of the State became intolerable to the neighbouring Powers; the unprovoked hostility to the British Power by Bharmalja (the father of the present Rao) together with his tyrannous and oppressive conduct to the Jahreja Chiefs owing to inebriety and insanity, led to the combined operations of the British and Gaekwar's troops, who reduced the fort of Angar, and subsequently the whole province was restored to order. This led to the treaty of Bhooj in 1816, by which for political motives, Mandavie the chief seaport of the Cutch province, (lat. 22.50. N. long. 69.33. E.) together with Anjar, &c. in the same province, was ceded by the governing power to the E. I. Company, and placed under the sway of the Bombay Presidency; and in 1819, Cutch became a subsidized State, the English engaging to curb the plunderers from Wagur, whose depredations had been carried on with desolating vigour, and to keep the Sindeans and Khosas from their occasional invasions of the province.

The ambitious and treacherous designs of the Peishwa in 1817 against the British, by whom he had been elevated to power and supported in his dominions so long, was the means of extending yet more the territories under the Bombay Presidency. The Mahrattas took advantage of the Pindary war to commence hostilities, but the decisive conduct of the Marquis of Hastings, as prievously stated, settled up to the present period the fate of Western India, and in 1818, the Northern and Southern Concan, (12,270 square miles) Kandish (12,430 square miles) Poonah, (20,870 square miles) Dharwar, (9,950 square miles) and various territories, &c. in Gujerat, became the dominions of the British in India; the whole of the Bombay Presidency, now forming an area of 64,938 square miles, and a population of 7,000,000 million souls.

STIPENDIARY PRINCES,—SUBSIDIARY AND PROTECTED STATES,—AND FEUDATORY AND TRIBUTARY CHIEFTAINS OF BRITISH INDIA.

STIPENDIARY PRINCES.—It will be seen from the fore-

going details that a large portion of the British dominions in the East is made up of the possessions of Princes who either themselves, or their descendants now enjoy stipends paid to them out of the public revenues. These Princes first became connected with us by subsidiary alliances, and ceded territories in return for military protection,—others lost their dominions by the chances of war, while some territories were taken under our control from the absolute incapacity of the rulers, or their tyranny, which in mercy to the unhappy sufferers we could no longer permit to exist. The Princes of the first and last classes are formally installed on the Musnud, allowed to exercise sovereignty over the tenants on their household lands,—they are exempted from the jurisdiction of the British Courts of law, have their own civil and military functionaries; with all the insignia of state, and a British Envoy usually resident at their Court, whose duties chiefly relate to their pecuniary affairs, or the ceremonials of sovereignty. The following is an abstract in round numbers of their stipends.

When granted	Titles of Princes.	Stipend. Rupees.	When granted	Titles of Princes.	Stipend. Rupees.
1803	Emperor of Delhi and family	15,00,000	1818	Bajee Row ..... Peishwa's Family	8,00,000
1801	Soubhadar of the Carnatic ..	11,65,400	1818	Chimnajee Appah	2,00,000
——	Families of former Soubhadars	9,00,000	1803	Vinaeek Rao	7,50,000
			1803	Zoolfikur Ali.....	4,00,000
1798	Rajah of Tanjore	11,83,500	1806	Himmut Bahadoor's descendants	60,000
1770	Soubhadar of Bengal, &c. ..	16,00,000			
——	Families of former Do. &c...	9,00,000	1818	Benaeek Rao and Seeta Baee	2,50,000
1795	Rajah of Benares	1,43,000	1818	Gowind Rao of Calpee.....	1,00,000
1799	Families of Hyder Ali and Tippoo	6,39,549	1771	Nawaub of Masulipatam	50,000
——	Rajahs of Malabar.....	2,50,000		Total Rupees..	1,08,91,449

* Or at the rate of 2s. per Rupee, in sterling, £1,089,144

Subsidiary Alliances.—Nearly one half of the Hindostan territory is held by Governments in subsidiary alliances with

* A very able document drawn up by Mr. B. S. Jones of the Board of Control, makes the amount of stipends paid in 1827-28, as follows,—Nabob of Bengal, S. R. 22,40,350,—Rajah of Benares 1,34,282,—Emperor of Delhi, 13,40,983,—Benaeek Rao, 5,79,866,—Nabob of Arcot, 17,53,965,—Rajah of Tanjore, 10,47,389,—Nawaub of Masulipatam,52,671,—Families of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Saib, 6,38,858,—the late Peishwa, Bajee Rao and Chimnajee Appah, 22,42,023,—Nabob of Surat, 1,62,675. Total 1,01,92,557 or at 2s. the S. R. £1,019,255 sterling.

the British Government, the general terms of the treaties with whom are, on the side of the English, protection against external enemies, and on the other, a submitting, in all political relations with foreign states, to the arbitration and final adjudication of the British Government; a specific force is furnished by the E. I. Company, and a territory equivalent to the maintenance of the troops ceded by the former: the subsidizing state is also bound to keep on foot a specific contingent force to act in subordinate co-operation with the subsidiary. The protecting power is not to interfere with the internal administration of the protected state, but in cases of exigency it reserves the right in general to assume the whole of the resources of the protected state. The subsidiary force is liable to be called out to protect the legal succession to power, but not to be employed between the head of the Government and its Zumendars or Chiefs.

The following is given as a list of the Princes, the military protection of whose territories is undertaken by the British Government, together with the amount of subsidy paid by each, or the revenue on the territorial assignment in lieu of subsidy.

Princes and their Capital Cities.	Population.	Area of Territory, sq. miles.	First Treaty.	First Subsidiary Connection	Subsidiary Forces. Cavalry	Subsidiary Forces. Infantry	Gross Revenue.	Charges, &c.	Net Subsidy.
	No.						£.	£.	£.
King of Oude* (Lucknow)	6000000	25300	1764	1773	at least	10000 m.	1813562	506222	1307340
Soubhadar of the Deccan (Hydrabad)	16000000	108800	1766	1795	1000	8000	610000	120000	490000
His Highness the Gaekwar (Baroda)	4000000	36000	1773	1805	2000	4000	302726	147170	155626
Sindiah and others (Gwalior)	4000000	42400	1781	1803	—	—	2398104	836925	1561278
Holkar and others (Indore)		17100	1805	1817	Undefd.	Undefd.	273574	} 87299	420995
Rajah of Nagpoor (Nagpoor)	3000000	64270	1779	1816	Ditto	Ditto	224720		
Rao of Cutch (Bhooj)		6100	1816	1819	—	1 Batt.	—	—	32400
Rajah of Mysore (Mysore)	3000000	27681	1799	1799	Undefd.	Undefd.	—	—	280440
Rajah of Travancore (Travancore)	1000000	6731	1784	1789	—	3 Batt.	—	—	89493
Rajah of Cochin (Cochin)		560	1791	1809	—	1 Batt.	—	—	22857
Totals		279620							4339994

Two of the foregoing (Oude and Mysore) can scarcely be styled stipendiary, the former being almost entirely dependent on the British Government, and the latter recently ordered under the direct management of Madras Presidency, owing to long misgovernment. Sindiah's territories

* Some accounts give the area of Oude at 17,008,000 acres, of which about one tenth is jungle and forest.

should also of right be excluded as, to a great extent, he is independent of our authority. The charges include revenue collection, political, judicial and police, maintenance of provincial battalions, customs, mint, &c.; the balance remaining after these deductions go to the purpose for which the territories were granted—namely, the military protection of the Government which assigned them.

PROTECTED STATES.—Besides the foregoing Governments, there are several minor principalities with whom engagements or treaties have been entered into agreeably to the peculiar circumstances of each, but with general stipulations applicable to all; namely, that the Protected State maintain no correspondence of a political tendency with foreign powers without the privity or consent of the British Government, to whom the adjustment of its political differences is to be referred; they are perfectly independent in their internal rule, but acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government. When the interests of both powers are concerned, the troops of the protected state, act in the field in subordinate co-operation to the British forces, the latter being empowered to avail themselves of natural or other advantages in the allied country against an enemy when necessary. No asylum for criminals or defaulters is permitted, and every assistance required to be given to effect their apprehension in the state. Europeans not to be employed without British permission. According to the resources of the protected state, a tribute is required, or a military contingent to be kept in readiness, or service to be rendered according to the means of the protected power. The states thus protected,* but without subsidiary alliances, are—

1st. in the N. W. Siccim and the Sikh and Hill States, on the left bank of the Sutlej—(the Sirdars are in number 150).

2nd. Rajpoot States. Bickaneer, Jesselmere, Jyepore,

* The Protected States, and Jagerdars in Bundlecund, are in number 37;—area in square miles, 12,918; number of villages, 5,755; population, 1,378,400; revenue, rupees 8,381,300; cavalry, 6,087, and infantry 22,430. For details see *Appendix.*

Joudpore, Oudepore, Kotah, Boondee, Serowey, Kishengurh, Dowleah, and Pertaubgurh, Doorapoore, Banswarra.

3rd. Jaut and other States on the right bank of the Jumna. Bhurtpore, Ulwar, or Macherry, Kerowlee.

4th. Boondelah States. Sumpthur, Jhansi, Jaloun, Oorcha, or Tehree, Dutteah, Rewah.*

5th. States in Malwa. Bhopaul, Dhar, Dewas, Rutlaum, Silana, Nursinghur, Amjherra, &c. &c. &c.

6th. States in Guzerat. Pahlunpore, Rahdunpore, Rajpeepla, Loonawara, Soonth, the States in the Myhee Caunta, the Kattywar States.

7th. States on the Malabar Coast (chiefly Mahratta). Sattarah, Sawunt Warree, Colapore, Colabba.

8th. Burmese Frontier. Cachar, Jyntia.

States not under British Protection. Scindia, the Rajah of Dholapore, Barree and Rajakera (formerly Rana of Gohud), Runjeet Sing of Lahore, the Ameers of Scind, and the Rajah of Nepaul.

The table on the opposite page exhibits the tributaries and territories acquired in India since 1813.

* Statement of protected States and Jageerdars in Saugor, abstracted from the Letter of the Agent in the Saugor and Nerbudda, dated 4th Dec. 1831. See Bengal Political Cons. 13th January, 1832, No. 56.

States.	Extent of Territory.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Revenue.	Military Force.	
					Cavalry.	Infantry.
Rewah	70 Coss, 2 miles N. to S. and 60 E. to W.	4000	1200000	2000000	4000	..
Ocheyrah	10 Coss, E. to W. 7 ditto, N. to S.	404	120000	150000	50 or 60	300
Sohawul	Computed to own about half the quantity of Land that Ocheyrah possessed.	217½	80000	100000	..	..
Kothee	6 Coss, E. to W. 5 ditto, N. to S.	62	30000	50000	20 or 30	800
Myhur	15 Coss, E. to W. 10 ditto, N. to S.	700	100000	150000	200	1800
Shahgurh	9 Coss, N. to S. 23 ditto, E. to W.	285	30000	69000	200	1000
Chimdea	.....	Included in the Rewah State.		50000		
Simerea	.....			70000		

District.	State.	Date.	Particulars of Cessions, amount of present Tribute, &c.	Acquired Territories, &c.	Gross Receipts.*	Months.	Sq. Miles.
Rajpootana	Kotah	26 Dec. 1817	The Tribute paid to the Mahrattas (Rs. 261,000)		*Sur. Rs.* 1,22,250		
	Boondee	10 Feb. 1818	The Tribute and Revenue paid to Scindia (Rs. 90,000)		40,000		
	Joudpore	6 Jan. 1818	The Tribute paid to Scindia (Rs. 108,000)		1,86,000		
	Oudepore	13 Ditto 1818	A Tribute of 1-4th of the Revenues for 5 years, and afterwards 3-8ths (Rs. 225,000)		2,99,219	15,000,000	350,000
	Jyepore	2 April 1818	A Tribute of 1-4th of the Revenue paid to Scindia (Rs. 108,000)		7,38,000		
			A Tribute increasing from 4 to 8 lacs for six years, and afterwards 8 lacs till the Revenues exceed 40 lacs, and then five-sixths of the excess (Rs. 800,000)		none		
	Sarowey	31 Oct. 1818	A Tribute of not more than three-eighths of the Revenue		76,547		
	Pertaubguth & Dowlea	5 Oct. 1818	The arrears due to Holkar, and *Rs.* 72,700 Tribute (Rs. 68,000)		85,719		
	Banswara	16 Sept. 1818	A Trib. not to exceed 3-8th of the Revenue; also the Trib. paid to Dhar (Rs. 35,000)				
	Doongurpore	25 Dec. 1818	Ditto (Rs. 35,000) ditto				
	Rutlam	11 Ditto 1818	Tribute payable to Scindia and Dhar		1,17,185		
	Sillana						
Malwa	Allee Mohun			*See* Rutlam, Sillana, and Allee Mohun.			
	Scindia	1818	Cedes Ajmere and the Tribute of Rutlam, Sillana, and Allee Mohun (Rs. 444,414)	Ajmere.	4,09,279		400
	Holcar	6 Jan. 1818	Cedes the Tribute paid by the Rahjoot Princes; and all places within or north of the Boondee Hills; also his possessions in Candeish, and within and south of the Snuttpoora Hills, and Umber and Ellora	Part of Candeish. See Paishwa.			
	Dhar	10 Jan. 1819	Cedes the Tribute of Allee, of Banswara and Doongurpore.		1,60,424		
	Bhopaul	18 Dec. 1821	Tribute		12,61,969		
Guzerat	Guicowar	26 Feb. 1818	The farm of Ahmedabad		13,51,422	500,000	4,200
		6 Nov. 1817		Collectorates of Poona	20,95,392	650,000	28,000
				Ditto Ahmednuggur	16,40,359		
				N. Concan	12,85,372	640,857	7,000
	Peishwa	13 June 1817	Cedes Ballapoor and other Districts, the Tribute of Kattywar, the Territories of Dharwar and Koosigul; also Rights and Territories in Malwa. Cedes also his Rights in Bundlecund and Saugor, and Rights and Territories north of the Nerbudda, excepting those in Guzerat	S. Concan (Total)	27,10,951	634,193	6,260
		1818	Cedes the whole of his possessions	Part of Dharwar (Total)	17,16,345		
				Candeish (Total)	6,45,000	62,000	
				Ramdroog, Kittoor, &c.			
				Saugor, Hutta, &c. See Nagpore.			
Deccan	Sawunt Warree	17 Feb. 1819	Cedes Ports of Newtee and Rairee, and Districts and Coast from the Carree to Vingoria, and thence to the Portuguese Territory, a portion of which was restored in 1820.				
	Colapore	15 March 1829	Cedes Akevat and lands adjoining, equivalent to *Rs.* 10,000 per annum.				
	Nizam	12 Dec. 1822	Cedes Possessions on the West Bank of the Seena and within Ahmednuggur, estimated at 4 and a quarter lacs, for which he receives Territory in exchange.				
Berar	Nagpore	6 Jan. 1818	Cedes Territories North of the Nerbudda, and on the South Bank, also Gungeegun, certain tracts in Berar; also Silgoojah and Jushpore	Ceded territory on Nerbudda	18,53,261		
		26 Dec. 1829	Tribute of 6 lacs per annum	Part of Saugor, Hutta, Rehly and Mhairwarra (Total)	12,07,963		
Nepaul		2 Ditto 1815	Cedes a considerable portion of Territory, much of which was given to the King of Qude and Sleeim Rajah	Kumaon	1,81,173	300,016	10,967
Ava		24 Feb. 1826	Renounces claims to Assam, Cachar and Jyntea.	Lower and Upper Assam			
			Cedes Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Mergui, Tenasserim	Arracan	6,03,374	100,000	50,000
				Ramree			
				Sandoway			
						14,000	
Malay, St.	Johore	2 Aug. 1824		Singapore	44,680	33,132	1,100
	Malacca	March 1824	Ceded by the Dutch	Malacca			

* The Net Receipts of the British Government, or the Sum which remains after paying the Expences of Residencies, Agencies, Establishments, and Military Charges, incurred in consequence of the connexion with the several States, cannot be given with any accuracy.

British Feudatory Chiefs.—These chiefs so far differ from the former class, that, while the *protected* chiefs had treaties concluded with them as independent princes, the *feudatory* have had their allegiance tranferred to Great Britain by their feudal superiors or by the events of war. In most cases the lands which they held as a life tenure, have been converted by our government into a perpetuity, and the chiefs are permitted a supreme control on their own lands. Among the number of these chiefs may be mentioned the Putwurdhun family, of which there are nine chiefs; the Soubahdar of Jansi, chief of Julaon and Calpee; family of Angria, (the Mahratta pirate); numerous tributaries in Kattywar and in Gujerat; the Rajahs of Shorapoor and Gudwal; the Seedee of Jinjeera, and other Abyssinian chiefs.*

British Allies.—Independent of the foregoing States, the East India Company's government have general treaties with other surrounding nations, viz:—with *Persia* the Company are in alliance, and have a resident at the court of the sovereign. With *Cochin-China, Siam, Caubul, Nepaul,* and *Ava,* the intercourse of the Company is principally of a commercial

* Parliamentary Return of the area of Protected and Allied States.—Dominions of the Rajahs of Travancore and Cochin, 9,400 square miles; Nizam, 108,800; Rajah of Mysore, 29,750; King of Oude, 25,300; Dowlat Rao Scindiah, 42,400; the Rajah of Berar, including Nagpore, 64,270; Jeswunt Rao Holkar, 17,600; the Guicowar, including the detached Pergunnahs belonging to the British in Kattywar and Guzerat, 36,900; Rajah of Koorg, 2,230; Nabob of Kurnool, 3,500; Rajah of Sikhim, 4,400; Nabob of Bhopal, 7,360; Rajahs of Sattara, Colapore, Sewuntwarree, and the principal British Jaghiredars, 21,600; Rajah of Cutch, 6,100; Soubedar of Jhansi, Rajah of Duttea and others, commonly known as the Bundlecund Chiefs, 19,000. Territories under British protection W. of the river Jumna, comprehending Jhodpore, Bikanier, Jessulmeer, Khotah, the Seikh Country, the Hill Districts of Sirmoor, and other small states, 165,000. Of Assam, Jynteea, Cachar, and Muneepore, the boundaries are so undefined that it is difficult to form even an approximation to their superficial contents, but it is estimated at 51,000. Total, 614,610 square miles.

nature, but they have residents established at Nepaul and Ava.

With the *Imaum of Muscat, and with other Chiefs on the western shores of the Persian Gulf*, the Company have treaties for commercial purposes, and with a view to the suppression of the slave trade, and of piracy in the Gulf. In order to secure the fulfilment of the provisions of these treaties, the Company have established political agents on the shores of the Persian and Arabian Gulfs.

The area of the kingdoms and principalities of India has been computed by Capt. J. Sutherland after a novel manner; the boundaries of each state having been marked off on a skeleton map, drawn on paper of equable texture, the whole were cut out with the greatest care, and *weighed* individually and collectively, as a check in the most delicate balance of the Calcutta Assay Office: the weights were noted to a *thousandth part of a grain*, the balance being sensible to the tenth part of that minute quantity. Before setting to work on the States, an index, or unit of 100 square degrees, cut from the same paper, was first weighed, to serve as a divisor for the rest. The weighing process commenced in the driest part of the day, taking the whole of the papers together; thus the continent of India weighed 127,667 grains troy: the sum of the *individual* weights of the separate states 127,773 grains troy: the addition was proved to proceed from the hygrometric water, absorbed towards the evening, and corrections were applied to endeavour to neutralise this source of error: the following data must, however, only be considered as an approximation to truth in the absence of better information, owing to the imperfect data of maps of India. By Capt. Sutherland's weighing process, the area of the native States, in alliance with the British government, is 449,845 square miles. That of the territory under British rule, with the remaining small states and Jágérdars, 626,591, giving the superficial area of India 1,076,591 square miles, which nearly agrees with Hamilton's estimate of 1,103,000.

Capt. Sutherland classes the native States of India under the three following heads, viz :—

1*st. Foreign.*—Persia, Kabool, Senna, the Arab tribes, Siam, and Acheen. *2nd. External on the frontier.*—Ava, Nepal, Lahore, and Sinde. *3rd. Internal* (to which the following areas refer), which, according to the nature of their relations, or treaties, with the British, he divides into *six* classes.

First Class.

	By Weighment.	By Hamilton.*	
1. Oude, square miles,	23,923	20,000	Treaties offensive and defensive; right on their part to claim protection external and internal from British government and right of the latter to interfere in internal affairs.
2. Mysore, do. . .	27,999	27,000	
3. Berar, or Nagpur, do.	56,723	70,000	
4. Travancore, do.. .	4,574	6,000	
5. Cochin, do. . .	1,988	2,000	

Second Class.

6. Hyderabad, sq. m.	88,884	96,000	Do. with the exception of the right of Britain to interfere in internal affairs, but empowered to require the aid of British troops for the realization of the sovereign's just claims on his subjects.
7. Baroda, do. . .	24,950	12,000	

Third Class.

8. Indore, . . . square miles	4,245	
Rajpoot States. 9. Oudipore, (H. 7,300)	11,784	Treaties offensive and defensive, states mostly tributary; acknowledging the supremacy of, and promising subordinate co-operation to, the British government, but supreme rulers in their own dominions.
10. Jeypúr, ...	13,427	
11. Judpoor, ...	34,132	
12. Kotah, (H. 6,500) . .	4,389	
13. Bundi, (H. 2,500) . .	2,291	
14. Alwar, ...	3,235	
15. Bikbanír, ...	18,060	
16. Jesalmír, ...	9,779	
17. Kishengurh, ...	724	
18. Bauswarra, ...	1,440	
19 Pertabgurh, ...	1,457	
20. Dúngarpúr, ...	2,005	
21. Keroli, ...	1,878	
22. Serowí, ...	3,024	
23. Bhurtpúr, (H. 5,000) .	1,946	
24. Bhopal, (H. 5,000) . .	6,772	
25. Cutch (H. 13,300) . .	7,396	
26. Dhar and Dewas, . .	1,466	
27. Dhólpúr, ...	1,626	
28. (in Bundlekund) Rewah, .	10,310	
29. ——————— Dhattea, Jhànsi and Terhí, . . .	16,173	
30. ——————— Sawantwari,	935	

* Extracted from Hamilton's Hindoostan by way of comparison.

FOURTH CLASS.

Ameer Khan.	31. Tonk,	1,103	Guarantee and protection, subordinate co-operation, but supremacy in their own territory.
	Seronj,	261	1,633
	Nimbahara,	269	
32. Patiala, Keytal, Naba, and Jeend,		16,602	

FIFTH CLASS.

33. Gwalior, . . . 32,944—Amnity and friendship.

SIXTH CLASS.

34. Sattara, ...	7,943	Protection, with the right of the British Government to control internal affairs.
35. Kolapúr, ...	3,184	

Of the above States Capt. Sutherland enumerates four as *Mahomedan* (*i. e.* with Mussulman rulers I presume), viz:—Hydrabad, Oude, Bhopal, and Tonk: of the *Hindoo* States eight are Mahratta, viz:—Sattara, Gwalior, Nagpúr, Indore, Banda, Kolapúr, Dhar, and Dewas: 19 are Rajput, viz:—Oudipúr, Jeypúr, Judpúr, Búndi, Kotah, Cutch, Alwar, Bhikanír, Jesalmír, Kishenghur, Bánswára, Pertábgúrh, Dungerpúr, Kerolé, Serowé, Rewah, Dhattea, Jhansé, and Terhi: six are of other Hindoo tribes, viz:—Mysore, Bhurtpoor, Travancore, Sawantwari, Cochin, and Dholpúr. Besides these allied States, there are the following inferior Rajships and Jágérdars, viz:—Chota-Nagpúr, Singújer, Sumbhalpúr, Oudipoor, Manipúr, Tanjore, the Baroach family, Ferozpúr, Merich, Tansgaon, Nepani, Akulkote, and those of the Ságar and Nerbudda country, together with Sikhim, and the States of the Northern Hills.

Before closing the subject, it may be desirable to mention an independent chief of great talent, wealth, and power, with whom the British government is on terms of friendly alliance. I allude to Runjeet, or Ranajit Sing, whose country includes not only what is called the Punjaub, and the whole of the lovely and important valley of Cashmere, but also considerable tracts of territory beyond the Indus from Tatta on the S. to Thibet on the N., and from Caubul on the W. to beyond the Sutlej on the E. This formidable Potentate possesses a large army (see *Military chapter*), an immense arsenal at Umritzar, and a vast treasury (his annual revenues are estimated at 1,80,00,000 rupees) at Govind Garrow.

On the important question of the advantages, or disadvantages of subsidiary alliances, I am happily saved the necessity of dilating, by reason of the following statesman-like evidence given before the late East India Parliamentary Committee,* by Richard Jenkins, Esq. M.P., a gentleman who had passed 30 years of his life in the civil service of the East India Company (the last 20 of which were spent as a diplomatist), and whose opinions, here given, bespeak his high range of talent. On being interrogated upon the general nature and character of our subsidiary treaties in India, and their effect upon the good government of the respective territories, to which they relate,—Mr. Jenkins thus replied.

The question regarding our subsidiary alliances seems to require a short reference to the still more general one, viz. are we to maintain our ascendancy as the paramount power in India; and if so, is it to be maintained through the means of subsidiary alliance, or through what other system.

The rise and progress of our power in India have been rapid and marvellous. Unlike other empires ours has been in a great degree forced upon us, built up at almost every step against our own deliberate resolution to avoid it, in the face, I may say, of every opposition which could be given to it by the Legislature, by his Majesty's Government, by the Court of Directors acting upon corresponding dispositions in our governments abroad. Each successive Governor-General for the last half century, sent from this country, with minds fresh and untouched by local prejudices, including Lord Cornwallis during his first administration, who went to India under the Act containing the well known denunciation against conquest and extension of dominion; Lord Wellesley, Lord Minto, Lord Hastings, (the two last strongly impressed against the existing foreign policy in India) and Lord Amherst, have seen reason to enter into the wars and negociations, defensive in their objects, but generally terminating in that very extension of territory and dominion which was dreaded.

What are we to infer from this, but that our position in India has always been such, that our existence has depended on the very steps proscribed by the Legislature, and which would surely have been most religiously avoided by those noblemen, had not the public safety demanded a contrary course; that at no one time for the last 50 years have our ablest and most enlightened politicians been able to find a resting-place where we might repose in security amidst the wreck of surrounding states, and

* 27th March, 1832.

that we are now perhaps in the same uncertain predicament, though all but masters of the whole of India.

With regard to the system on which this ascendancy, if necessary to our existence in India, is to be maintained, I have to observe, that a very great proportion of our power has arisen out of the subsidiary policy. It is indeed the main source of our ascendancy, both military and political, it has grown with our growth, and strengthened with our strength; it is interwoven with our very existence, and therefore the question of abandoning, or materially departing from it, seems to me to be quite irrational, unless we are at the same time prepared to abandon India.

We first appeared in India as traders, but it was as armed traders, and our various contests with our European rivals, the prospect of which rendered a warlike garb necessary to support our peaceful objects, were the origin of our military reputation in that region. Courted even by the Great Mogul, and by the Sophi of Persia, as useful instruments to free their coasts from pirates, we acquired, as the price of our aid, many of those commercial advantages which fixed us on the continent of India. Then again the breaking up of the Mogul empire led to arming our factories, to protect our lives and properties. The same skill and gallantry which had at first won our way to commercial settlements, displayed anew, induced the native powers newly arising out of the wrecks of the empire, to court our aid in their contests with one another; and the views of securing and improving our commercial establishments, through the favour of those powers, forbad our refusing to intermeddle with their politics. Here the first step was the decisive one; once committed we could not recede.

The French in the meantime had made still bolder advances to empire in India, and our destruction or their expulsion became the alternatives. Could we hesitate which to choose? We now began to raise armies. These were to be paid; and could only be paid by the princes whose cause we espoused against the French and their allies: pecuniary payments often failing, territorial assignments took their place, and we were obliged to exercise a civil as well as a military power. Our whole dominion on the coast of Coromandel arose in this way, and much of that on the western coast: and through it, and the armies it enabled us to maintain, the power of Hyder was checked, and that of his son Tippoo was annihilated: the French power and influence in the Deccan was destroyed, and the Mahratta empire brought under subjection. In Bengal, though the acquisition of the Dewannee, gave us the great nucleus of our power in that quarter; still it was extended and secured through the same system of subsidiary alliances applied to Oude; and in fact, if we examine the composition of our territorial acquisitions, we shall find that a very considerable portion of them has accrued to us in payment by the native states of specified numbers of our troops, amounting in revenue to the whole military expenses

of Bengal, as the following rough statement will shew. The civil charges being deducted, the balance is given as applicable to military purposes.

1827-28.	Revenues.	Civil Charges.	Balance.
Carnatic, in lieu of Subsidy	£1,404,343	£493,279	£911,064
Tanjore	394,672	186,638	208,034
Nizam	584,369	432,911	541,458
Peishwa	estimated at....	.....	430,000
Travancore subsidy	.....	.....	89,498
Cochin ditto	.....	.....	22,857
Mysore ditto	.....	.....	280,000
Guychwar	382,796	147,170	235,626
Oude	1,813,565	506,223	1,307,338
Benares	778,533	232,359	546,174
Nagpore Cessions	estimated at....	.....	150,000
Do. Tribute	.....	.....	60,000
Total Subsidies, and Cessions in lieu of ditto			£4,689,049

If, with these great advantages, and many others, we also experience some inconveniences from our subsidiary alliances, we must not complain; but I really see none of the latter to ourselves at all to be put in competition with the former. I do not believe that we have ever been engaged in a war in defence of our allies, which did not call upon us to interfere in their favour whether they were our allies or not. Whilst having the right to guide their political conduct in the minutest points, we are secure from any involvement in hostilities of an offensive nature through their ambition or want of faith; many other advantages of our alliances will be obvious on consideration of the general position of the several states and our own. Our subjects, I presume, derive benefit from any political situation which strengthens our power, and relieves them from the dangers of invasion; and by preserving peace and order amongst our neighbours, takes from before their eyes the temptation to a life of plunder and irregularity; settles their minds to a determined adherence to peaceable avocations, and opens sources of foreign trade to their industry and enterprise; and such is the result of the subsidiary system.

With regard to the effect of our alliances upon the native princes themselves, and their subjects, I would premise, that our alliances are such as were concluded with the states that were at the time upon some footing of equality with ourselves, though led by some external danger to submit to certain terms implying a diminution of sovereignty, as the Nizam, the Peishwa and the Guychwar, or such as exist with states owing their very existence to our creation or forbearance, or those with inferior states whose internal independence in civil affairs we acknowledge, with certain exceptions inseparable from their subordination to us in military matters, and in circumstances affecting the public tranquillity.

With respect to the first class, they have all obtained the benefit they sought, of security from external danger, by which they were left at liberty, if so inclined, to cultivate the arts of peace. The natural effect,

however, of such a connection is to lessen the energy and self-dependence of the native state, and to induce it to neglect its natural resources, or only to cultivate them to the degree necessary to swell their personal treasures, with a view to contingencies, either of hostile attempts on their own part or on ours; and the result, speaking broadly, has been a gradual falling of the power of the state into our hands, (even where, by treaty, all interference in internal affairs has been prohibited,) whether from the weakness or the evil disposition of our ally, giving rise to dangers and disorders that would otherwise have dissolved the alliance, and caused the destruction of the state by a contest with us, or its own dissolution from internal or external force. These consequences, too, have occurred, in spite of our efforts to prevent them, at Hyderabad, whilst at Poonah the success of such efforts has not prevented the forcible disruption of the alliance. With the affairs of the Guychwar we have been involved *ab initio* in a direct interference; and the necessity of reverting to it, after a trial of our opposite system, is the best proof of the evils of the latter, if not of the benefits of the former, only adopted from absolute necessity in the first instance.

With regard to their subjects, our support, has given cover to oppressions and extortions, which probably, under other circumstances, would have driven them to rebellion; and such evils have only been remedied where we have been forced to a direct interference for the special purpose of remedying them.

The freedom from external invasion, unless accompanied with such interference, I should fear would hardly be a boon to the inhabitants; for with all the horrors of such invasions, especially by the Pindarees, they were usually well prepared to mitigate their effects in part, and in part to turn them to their own account in evading the exaction of their princes.

With regard to the second class of states, as Holkar, Mysore, Satarah, Oude and Nagpore, (not to speak of the states of Travancore and Cochin,) we have a formal right of interference with all but that of Holkar; and although with regard to him there may exist some grounds of exception to the conclusion, it appears to me that in all the considerations of the interests (I mean the real welfare, apart from the pride of independence) of the governments and their subjects, the benefits of direct interference and control will be found to predominate. In such cases, if we have the court, the highest classes civil and military, viz. the official classes, the great landowners, and a few leading bankers against us, we have the middle and lower orders, monied, mercantile, manufacturing, agricultural, and even military for us.

The last class, as the states in central India and Rajpootana, have undoubtedly received benefits from the connection with us, in being saved from destruction, or at least a constant state of depression and misery, under Mahratta, Patan and Pindaree domination, beyond that of any other

state or people, and the increased cultivation and prosperity of those regions is a proof of it; still there are difficulties and hazards attending these connections which I am not prepared to go into.

If there be any class of states which may be supposed to embrace our protection with a certainty of its unmixed advantage both to them and ourselves, such states are the latter. The less we interfere with their internal concerns, I should say the less likely it would be that causes of discontent would arise; and free as they are, or ought to be, from the jealousy of our domination, having been always dependent on one power or other, generally on all who are stronger than themselves, yet the high military spirit of the tribes of which they are composed will hardly submit for a length of time even to the just restraint imposed by us on their hostilities with each other or their domestic feuds. Still we may hope to keep them attached to ourselves in a greater degree than any other class of our allies.

Of the latter I fear we can never be sure, through any course of policy, however liberal, but by the means of our actual military strength; and although it is, of course, just to do our utmost to keep them in their actual condition, as settled by trustees, and perhaps politic with a view to the alternative of bringing their dominions under our direct rule, and to other considerations of keeping up the respectable classes of natives as long as our institutions are at variance with that object, I am rather of opinion that, in all points of view, such an alternative is not the worst, if we regard our own interest, those of our own subjects or those of foreign states, whether governors or governed. Act as we will we cannot divest ourselves of the high station we are placed in without the danger and almost certainty of a complete fall; nor, were we philanthropic enough to view such an event with indifference, if conducive to the real good of India, can we anticipate any such consequence. On the other hand, the ebbs and flows of our policy, sometimes interfering for the people, sometimes withdrawing our protecting arm, are a positive evil both to the native princes and to their subjects, and injurious to our reputation for consistency and good faith, encouraging to our enemies, and mortifying to, or even worse, disgusting to our friends. I am of opinion, then, that we ought not to recede from any step we have gained, but to improve every occasion legitimately presented, to compensate the inhabitants of India for the unavoidable evils of foreign domination, by securing to them the benefit at least of more enlightened, just and humane principles of government.

Placed in the midst of nations foreign to us, and inimical not only to us, but to every other people, by the extraordinary and exclusive nature of their religion, manners, customs and habits, not to mention language, which hardly alludes to foreigners but in terms of contempt, and not taking into account those sources of hatred and jealousy common to all nations under a foreign yoke, and particularly to those native states who have fal-

len from a high estate to one of humiliating dependence, it is expecting, I may almost say, impossibilities, to look to any means of maintaining our footing in India, but by the cultivation and improvement of our intrinsic strength, to exclusion of all reliance on our foreign relations for anything but a gradual preparation for the entire conquest of the Continent.

The rise and progress of the British power in Hindostan, has now, with as much brevity as possible been brought to a close, and it is almost impossible, at this short distance of time, to contemplate coolly and impartially, the important proceedings therein narrated: step by step, from the landing of Clive, in 1757, at Calcutta, for the re-conquest of the few acres of land possessed by the East India Company to the present period, the British power has gone on increasing in strength, and I trust in wisdom. There can be no doubt, that if the happiness of the great mass of the people be considered as paramount, the acquisition of the Indian provinces by the British, must be looked on as a most fortunate circumstance, for *peace*, the indispensable prelude to civilization, had not within record or tradition heretofore been known to continue for the shortest period among the unhappy inhabitants. The *Mahomedan dynasties* were built on usurpation, cemented with the blood of the feeble and innocent and maintained by sequestrating the riches of the wealthy; the policy of the Moslems in Asia was complete subjugation, universal dominion, and uncontrolled despotism; their ruling principles avarice, sensuality, an imposing pageantry, and a conversion to the faith of the Koran. The *Mahratta* conquests were considered as predatory acquisitions, to be held only by the sword; and such was the confused condition of the small Principalities existing in different parts of India, that in the Carnatic for example, no less than twenty petty chiefs assumed at one time the title of *Nizam Ul Mulk* (Composer of the State), exhibiting a scene of boundless exaction and rapacity on the part of those claiming the government; no wonder therefore that the ploughman was armed at his rustic occupation, and the shepherd while peacefully tending his herds, always prepared for the battle field. Property of every kind may well be supposed totally devoid of security; Mr. Orme, writing at the time, says

(Book I. Ch. IV.) 'the mechanic or artificer, under the government of the petty Princes, will only work to the measure of his necessities—he dreads to be distinguished; if he becomes too noted for having acquired a little more money than others of his craft, that will be taken from him; if conspicuous for the excellence of his skill, he is seized upon by some person in authority, and obliged to work for him night and day.' It is indeed on authentic record, that rebellion, massacres, and barbarous conquests, make up the history of India from the remotest annals; we read of thousands—twenty—seventy—a hundred thousand persons being *slaughtered in one day*, without the slightest compunction;—unbounded perfidy and treason;—never ending assassination for personal revenge, or public confiscation,—the noses and ears of thousands cut off one time, justice openly sold, villainy practised in every form,—all law and religion trodden under foot,—the bonds of private friendship, of connexions, of society, broken,—every individual, as if amidst a forest filled with wild beasts, relying upon nothing but the strength of his own arm;—in fine, the work of war and blood was perpetual, living beings hewed or torn to pieces, hillocks of bodies and pyramids of human heads piled up for public show, the inhabitants of whole provinces hunted like wild beasts for royal amusement; the march of a monarch, whether Mussulman or Mahratta, tracked by gore, desolation, burning villages, famine, and pestilence.

It may perhaps be said that I have exaggerated these statements in order to uphold the sway of the E. I. Company, but let the reader peruse the following description of the former state of India, by Mr. Rickards, who did all in his power to destroy the Company, though compelled to admit their fitness for the government of India;—Mr. Rickards, speaking of the *Mahomedan dynasties in India*, says, that 'Throughout the whole period of the Mahomedan ascendancy in the south of India, the same enormities, the never-failing accompaniments of their presence and power, are recorded to have been uniformly and unceasingly perpetrated, as in the northern provinces. To review the occurrences of this

period, would only be to give further examples of the same unprovoked and devastating warfare, the same struggles for power, the same unbridled thirst of conquest, the same *perfidy, treason, and private assassination;* the same disregard of any tie, whether of nature, of honesty, or of honour, and the same persecution, oppression, and massacre of the Hindoos.

'The scenes, indeed, of butchery and blood, are often mentioned as too horrid to relate—*thousands—twenty—seventy—a hundred thousand souls being sacrificed at one time,* without the least remorse; it was no uncommon thing for 50,000 and 100,000 souls to be massacred at once, in which neither sex nor age were spared; and of the blood of the most venerable priests, learned men, and citizens, being used for tempering the earth with and plastering the city walls! Mahomed, son of Alla-ud-deen, one of those southern monsters, died, it is true, acknowledging 'all is vanity,' but not until after gratifying during his life every sensual passion, slaughtering 500,000 persons, and ruining and depopulating the Carnatic.'

'The treasuries of the southern princes were always filled from the enormous plunder of their defenceless subjects; and the system of Mahomedan exaction, sometimes under the name of contribution, but permanently under that of revenue, being every where the same, with the power of rapacious armies every where to enforce it, the fate of the unhappy people was here, as in the north, stamped with the same wretchedness. There was no security for person or property; the latter more especially was always a fair object of seizure whenever it was known to exist,* and the mass of the people were thus reduced to a state of poverty from which there was

* Even to the present day the Hindoos have not entirely got over the dread of being known to possess money, or of having gold and silver utensils. Vast sums of money remain buried in the earth from generation to generation, and not unfrequently a sudden death deprives the inheritor of treasure of a knowledge where it lies concealed. Those who have conversed with wealthy natives can confirm me in this particular.—R. M. M.

no escape, and of violence and oppression against which there was no redress.'*

What a revolting description of despotism is the foregoing delineation of a Mahomedan dynasty! While perusing it the blood curdles in the veins, and the genial current which in general flows around the heart, becomes almost frozen in its course. Yet let me proceed: the same authority asserts that the 'loose principles of banditti were, on a larger scale, those of the Asiatic courts for seven or eight centuries; whoever has a taste for atrocities of this nature; for details of lawless rapine, and wholesale butchery of the species, for flaying and impaling alive, and every species of torture, *for hewing living bodies to pieces,* for massacreing prisoners in cold blood, and making hillocks of their bodies, and pyramids of their heads for public show, for hunting down the inhabitants of whole provinces like wild beasts, with other like modes of royal amusement, may be feasted to satiety in the history of the Mussulman conquests and governments of the Decken, which is little more than a continued series of those disgusting barbarities. Timour was justly denominated the 'firebrand of the universe.' The Westminster Review for July 1832, says he was 'one of the greatest wholesale butchers of humanity ever heard of; he plundered and massacred in India, without distinction of religion or sex, and his track was marked by blood, desolation, famine, and pestilence!' Aurengzebe persecuted the Hindoos in a similar manner to the other Mahomedan tyrants; Tippoo Saib circumcised all the Brahmins he could get hold of, and, as the reviewer says, 'subjected 60,000 christians to the same operation in a single province.'

Of the Mogul proceedings in India, Mr. Rickards observes, that 'the prisoners taken were inhumanly massacred; insurrections in the provinces were also incessant, so that *the work of war and blood was perpetual;* massacres were common to every reign, when the butchery extended, not only to the parties immediately concerned, but to their vassals, dependents, and even acquaintances; not even weeping mothers, nor their smiling infants at their breasts, were pitied or

* Rickards' India, vol. i. page 223.

spared! To prevent the accumulation of property in a few hands, the wealth* and estates of Mussulmans and Hindoos were, without distinction, seized upon and confiscated; no man durst entertain his friends without a written permission from the vizier, and the different public offices were filled with men, whose indigence and dependence rendered them implicitly obedient to the dictates of government!' Yet, strange to say, while narrating these horrifying facts, Mr. Rickards loads the English with opprobium for their conquest of Hindostan, and pines over the downfal of the Great Mogul, and with him of the Mahomedan dynasties in India.

A Mahomedan historian famed for his impartiality, named Golaum Hossein Khan, is however less tender than Mr. Rickards for the fate of the Great Mogul. In his able work, entitled 'A View of Modern Times,' he says, 'when the Emperor Shah Allum was carrying on war against the English nation on the plains of Azimabad, it was made known that the emperor designed to march thither in person. Although the inhabitants had received no benefits from him, they seemed to have but one heart and one voice on the occasion; but when he arrived amongst them, and they experienced from his profligate officers and disorderly troops the most shameless acts of extortion and oppression, whilst on the other hand they *observed the good conduct and strict discipline of the English army, the officers of which did not suffer a blade of grass to be spoiled, and no kind of injury done to the feeblest peasant*, then, indeed, the sentiments of the people changed, and the loyalty which they once bore to the emperor was transferred to the English, so that when Shah Allum made his second and third expeditions they loaded him with imprecations, and prayed for victory to the English.'

* The quantity of plunder, and the value thereof, abstracted at various times from the Hindoos, is detailed with much minuteness by Mr. Rickards; and it must astonish every one, where such immense treasures could be had, and how speedily they were re-collected, did we not know what a salient power there is in Hindostan, and how rapidly the most destructive disasters are recovered from by an industrious people, of commercial habits and few wants.

I turn now to the same author's description of the Mahratta governors, whom he states to have been 'quite equal to the Mussulmans in the dreadful atrocities they perpetrated, and the devastating ravages with which they desolated the countries through which they passed; their route being easily traced by ruined villages and destroyed cultivation; plundering as they went along, and seizing, by violence or by treachery, all that was valuable or conducive to their present security or ulterior views; controlled by no fixed laws, and by no better sense of right than the power of the sword. The districts which resisted were overrun with fire and sword, the inhabitants tortured and murdered, and the country left a dreary waste, to forewarn others of their fate if not averted by ready compliance with these lawless exactions.'

The annexed sketch of Mahratta barbarity affords a melancholy illustration of the dreadful state to which the great mass of the people were reduced by the combined barbarities of the Mussulmans and the Mahrattas, from which, in a few years, they were so happily rescued by the East India Company:—'In1759, Abdallah again turned his attention towards Hindostan; and in 1761, made himself master of its devoted capital Delhi. He laid the city under heavy contributions, and enforced the collection with such rigour and cruelty, that the unfortunate inhabitants, driven to despair, took up arms. The Persian ordered *a general massacre, which, without intermission, lasted seven days.* The relentless guards of Abdallah were not even then glutted with slaughter; but the stench of the dead bodies drove them out of the city. A great part of the buildings were at the same time reduced to ashes; and many thousands, who had escaped the sword, suffered a lingering death by famine, sitting upon the smoking ruins of their own houses. Thus the imperial city of Delhi, which, in the days of its glory, extended 34 miles in length, and was said to contain 2,000,000 of people, became almost a heap of rubbish. But this was not all; for the *Mahrattas* had now marched towards Delhi, to oppose Abdallah, with an army of 200,000 cavalry. On their approach Abdallah

evacuated the city, which the Mahrattas immediately entered, and filled every quarter of it with devastion and death. Not content with robbing the miserable remains of Abdallah's cruelty of everything they possessed, they stripped all the males and females naked, and wantonly whipped them through the streets. Many now prayed for death as the greatest blessing, and thanked the hand which inflicted the wound. Famine began to rage among the unfortunate citizens to such a degree, that men fled from their dearest friends as from beasts of prey, for fear of being devoured. Many women devoured their own children, while some mothers of more humanity were seen dead in the streets, with infants still sucking at their breasts.'

Several formidable bands of Hindoos, who, like the Mahrattas, gloried in the 'inestimable advantage of having a finger in every man's dish,' afford ample scope for details of cruelty and devastation; such, for instance, as the desolating freebooting Pindaries, the bands of terrific robbers named Coolies, and professional murderers called Thugs; but my limits forbid me—I cannot, however, close this chapter without adducing the testimony of the author before me, respecting the governments of the minor princes; and who, according to Mr. Rickards and Colonel Wilks, are accused of privately assassinating 400 priests (the only number they could collect together who would trust them), while passing from the audience-hall into a pretended refreshment chamber, because they opposed themselves to the *moderate* request of a tax upon 'opening a door!'—or of surrounding with large bodies of cavalry any community of their subjects who shewed the least resistance to oppression!

'The kingdom of Mysore, which arose out of the ruins of Vijeyanuggur, exhibits also a like origin in military adventure and blood, and in a similar series of intriguing usurpations, murder, and conquest. Each petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laid his claim to districts; the country was torn to pieces with civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion.'

Another set.—'The Polygars, like the northern zemindars,

were originally military adventurers, or leaders of banditti, or revenue or police officers, employed under former governments, and who, availing themselves of times of weakness or distress, or the absence of a controlling force, established themselves in their respective districts. Each Polygar, in proportion to the extent of his jurisdiction and power, had forts and military retainers, and exercised within his own limits all the powers of an Asiatic despot. In the history of the Pollams (the districts governed by the Polygars), anarchy, misrule, lawless power, insurrection, civil and external wars, ravages and famines, are the most prominent features. When the contribution demanded by a Polygar, the amount of which depended on his conscience, was resisted or not quietly submitted to, it was enforced by torture and the whip; the whole village was put in confinement; every occupation interdicted; the cattle pounded; the inhabitants taken captive into the Pollam lands, or *murdered;* in short, every species of outrage continued to be committed, until the object of the Polygar was accomplished.'*

Another specimen.—'In the northern circars, when they came into the Company's possession, not only the forms but even the *remembrance of civil authority seemed to be totally lost;* the zemindars had all forts and armed forces for their defence, the more powerful using their force as opportunities favoured to extend their possessions, and swallow up minor zemindaries.'

One more instance.—'The jaghire (now called Chingleput, a distance of 2,440 square miles in extent, and in the immediate vicinity of Madras), was twice invaded by Hyder Ali—once in 1768, and again in 1780. In the latter, more especially, fire and sword seemed to contend for pre-eminence in the work of havoc and destruction. At the close of the war in 1784, the country exhibited few signs of having been inhabited, save in the bones of murdered bodies, or the naked walls of villages and temples, the melancholy remains of an almost universal conflagration. To the miseries of a deso-

* This is just the state of Western Africa at present.

lating war, succeeded a famine; death and emigration nearly depopulated the country.'

But why continue details at which the heart sickens?—why relate further instances of 100,000 men being put to death, in *cold blood*, in one day?—why depict streets of cities made impassable by heaps of slain?—why describe the pitiless slaughter of thousands of mothers, with their smiling infants at their breasts?—why picture the fury of respectable citizens, who, beholding the pollution and ravishment of their wives and daughters, their wealth seized by the hand of rapine, and they themselves insulted, beaten, and abused, with one consent shutting the gates of their cities, murdering their consorts and children, setting fire to their houses, and then rushing out like madmen against their enemies?—why, I ask, narrate any more of scenes such as these, which everywhere crimson the page of Indian history, prior to our conquest? A christian and a philanthropist would say, that any power, European or Asiatic, interfering to put a stop to such harrowing scenes would be entitled to the highest approbation which man could bestow. If the East India Company had never added one shilling to the wealth of England, one inch of dominion to her crown, or one leaf of laurel to its glory, the mere circumstance of establishing peace in a country such as India, which for countless ages had been a prey to every species of atrocity which degrade men far below the level of the brutes, and which, under a less genial clime, and fertile territory, would have converted the whole land into a howling wilderness,—they would most assuredly deserve to be ranked among the noblest benefactors of the human race. Let therefore those who condemn the British conquest of Hindostan, reflect whether Providence acted wisely in putting a stop to scenes which harrow up the soul on bare perusal, making England the means of introducing tranquillity, civilization, and christian precepts into a country whence incalculable blessings may flow, to cheer and gladden many hundred million of human beings scattered throughout the vast territories of the Eastern Hemisphere.

AREA, PARALLEL, MERIDIAN, AND PHYSICAL ASPECT OF EACH BRITISH POSSESSION ON THE CONTINENT OF ASIA.

	Districts.	Area in square Miles.	Parallel. Lat. N.	Parallel. Long. E.	Geography and Physical Aspect.
Bengal Province.	Calcutta	4,722	22 23	88 28	Level with the sea, rivers, salt lakes and dense jungles, soil sandy.
	Hooghly	2,260	22 54	88 27	Low, flat, well watered, rich alluvial soil, along Hooghly river.
	Nuddea	3,105	23 25	88 21	Ditto, ditto, light soil, Jellinghy and Cossimbazar Rivers, fertile.
	Jessore	5,180	23 7	89 18	Ditto, salt marshy isles, rich soil, embouchures of the Ganges.
	Backergunge	2,780	22 42	89 20	Very low, part of the Sunderbunds, alluvial soil, ditto.
	Dacca	4,435	23 42	90 17	Covered with lakes, and intersected by the Ganges and Brahmaputra.
	Tipperah	6,830	23 30	92 20	Wild hilly regions, fertile tracts on Megna with marshes, dense forests.
	Chittagong	2,980	22 0	92 0	120 miles along the bay of Bengal, hilly, productive land, islets num.
	Sylhet	4,000	24 55	91 40	N.E. hilly, S. flat and inundated, W. conical hills, and fine vales.
	Mymensing	6,988	24 30	90 20	Valley of Brahmaputra, low, flat, and innumerable streams.
	Rajeshaye	3,950	24 30	89 0	Intersected by the Ganges, and flat with extensive lakes.
	Moorshedabad	1,870	24 11	88 15	Intersected by the Jellinghy, flat and fertile, well irrigated.
	Jungle Mehals	6,990	23 20	87 10	Wild, forest, hilly country, beautifully picturesque and dry.
	Birbhoom	3,870	24 0	87 20	Hilly, jungly and dry land, with hot mineral springs.
	Dinagepoor	5,920	25 37	88 43	Hilly, to S. waving vallies, numberless streamlets and lakes.
	Rungpoor	7,856	25 43	89 22	Do. to E. forests, watered, Garrow mountains, 3000 ft. clusters of lakes.
	Burdwan	2,000	23 15	87 57	Rising land, rich soil of a thirsty nature, jungly, coal and iron.
Behar.	Ramghur	22,430	24 30	84 30	Hilly, mountainous district, two-thirds waste, very rocky and mineral.
	Boglipoor	7,270	25 13	86 58	Clusters of fertile hills and swelling vallies, hot springs, iron.
	Behar	5,358	25 10	85 20	Hilly and rugged to S. flat near the Ganges, dry vallies, nitrous soil.
	Patna	667	25 37	85 15	Ganges banks for 9 miles, river 5 miles wide, very picturesque.
	Shahabad	4,760	25 0	84 0	Picturesque along the Ganges, hilly to S. good roads and rivers.
	Purneah	7,460	25 45	88 23	Marshy to S. alluvial country, sinking towards the Ganges.
	Tirhoot	7,732	27 10	86 0	Elevated, but not hilly, extensive wastes to the N. well watered.
	Sarun	5,760	26 0	84 56	Ditto irrigated, rich flats along Gundack, majestic forests.
Ultra Gangetic. Orissa.	Sumbhulpoor	8,260	21 8	83 37	Hill and dale, picturesque, intersected by Mahanundy.
	Midnapore		22 25	87 25	Cultivated plains, with good roads, and dense jungles.
	Hidjellee		51 50	88 10	Embanked against the tides, and intersected by rivers.
	Cuttack	9,000	20 30	86 0	Delta of rivers, elevated, then hilly, and next mountainous.
	Arracan	11,500	20 30	92 5	Isthmuses, islands, swamps, sea coast; jungles, hills, mounts. inland.
	Assam, &c.	15,900	26 28	90 56	Valley of the Brahmaputra, 60 miles wide by 350 long.
	Tavoy	15,000	10 8 to 16 0	97 0 to 99 0	Dense forests and jungles, sea coast, low islands. Numerous rivers, rice plains and forests, rocky coast. Mergui Archipelago, interior hilly, little known. Chain of high bold isles in triple lines, with harbours and wide channels.
	Ye				
	Tenasserim				
	Mergui Isles				
N. Western Provinces of Hindostan.	Benares	350	25 30	83 0	The holy city situate on the Ganges, highly cultivated.
	Ghazeepore	2,850	25 35	83 35	Gently undulating lovely groves, Ganges on the S. Goggra on the E.
	Azimghur	2,240	24 6	83 10	Elevated flat, jungle, sandy but fertile, Goggra river.
	Gorruckpoor	9,250	26 46	83 19	Base of hills low, intersected by rivers, forests, Nepaul ms. to N.
	Juanpoor	1,820	25 20	84 30	Slightly undulating surface, well cultivated, N. & S. Goggra, E. Ganges.
	Allahabad	2,650	25 27	81 50	Ganges and Jumna Delta, 800 feet above Calcutta, flat sandy loam.
	Banda	4,685	25 20	80 20	Elevated table land, high hills in parallel ranges, and few rivers.
	Kalpee		26 10	79 41	Along Jumna, flat, rising towards Panna mountains; diamond mines.
	Futtehpore	1,780	25 56	80 45	Ganges and Jumna valley, rising from either bank, picturesque.
	Cawnpore	2,650	26 30	80 13	Segment of vast plain from bay of Bengal to the mountains, fertile, dry.
	Etawah	3,450	26 47	78 58	Flat, but intersected by ravines, naked soil, Chumbul river.
	Furruckabad	1,850	27 24	79 37	The Doab is in general flat and divested of lofty trees, dry & clayey soil.
	Shahjehanpoor	1,920	27 50	79 42	Flat and intersected by N. mountain streams, well cultivated.
	Saidabad	1,000	27 30	78 0	Highly cultivated, many water courses, retentive brick clay.
	Allyghur	2,300	27 56	77 59	Low dark jungle, loneliest part of the Doab, many water courses.
	Saiswan	1,800	28 0	79 0	Highly cultivated, many water courses.
	Bareilly	2,000	28 23	79 16	Generally level, watered by the Ganges, Kosila, &c. Kumaon ms. N.
	Peellibheet	2,300	28 42	79 4	Pleasantly situate on the Gurrah, very fertile.
	Moradabad	5,800	28 51	78 42	A varied moist soil, inundated along the Ganges Gerwhal ms. Nd.
	Agra	3,500	27 11	77 58	Table land, Chumbul and Jumna, 60 feet high, light dry soil.
	Delhi	9,500	28 41	77 5	Ditto, 800 ft. above the ocean, thirsty saline soil, canals.
	Sarahunpoor	1,420	29 57	77 32	Quite flat to base of hills at N. and E., which rise abruptly, fertile.
	Kumaon, &c.	7,200	30 6	79 0	Succession of high mountainous ridges, elevating to 7,000 feet.
	Nerbudda Dist.	85,700	23 0	80 0	Deep ravines, fertile vallies, and dense forests Nerbudda delta.
Madras Presidency.	Gangam	3,700	19 21	85 0	Low sea-coast, large fertile plains, hilly to W.
	Vizigapatam	5,000	17 42	83 24	Mountainous lofty ridge, parallel with and frequently close to the sea.
	Rajamundry	4,690	16 59	81 53	Bounded by the Godavery, extensive delta, high hills delta 500 sq. ms.
	Masulipatam	4,810	16 10	81 14	Mountainous, W. low sea-coast, lakes and streams, good harbour.
	Guntoor	4,960	16 17	80 32	Ditto, ditto, ditto, watered by Krishna, to N. and Gondegama to the S.
	Bellary	12,703	15 5	76 59	Stupendous wall of mountains, rising abruptly from low lands, like a terrace, a vast level, and fertile plains.
	Cuddapah	12,752	14 32	78 54	
	Nellore	7,478	15 0	80 0	Picturesque even to the sea, groups of small hills, &c.
	Arcot	18,620	12 14	79 22	Varied surface, mountainous to the North, clothed with verdure.
	Chingleput	3,020	12 46	80 0	Includes Madras, low, with large masses of granite in a sandy soil.
	Salem	7,593	11 37	78 13	To N. 5000 feet above the sea, 3 divisions of hills, the last table land.
	Coimbatore	8,392	11 0	77 20	Undulating table land, 900 feet high; to the N. 6000 feet, Neilgherics.
	Trinchinopoly	3,169	11 0	78 10	More elevated, waving vallies, and abrupt eminences.
	Tanjore	3,872	10 11	79 11	Delta of Cauvery one flat sheet of rice cultivation to the East.
	Madura	7,656	9 11	78 30	Flat to S. & E, hilly and mountainous N. & W., forests, fertile vallies.
	Tinnivelly	5,590	8 10	78 0	Ridge of mountains W. open country to the sea, few hills, rivers.
	Malabar	4,800	10 12	76 0	200 miles sea-coast, low hills, sep. by narrow vallies from W. Ghauts.
	Canara	7,477	12 15	75 0	180 miles ditto, rocky and mountainous, W. Ghauts.
Bombay Pr.	Conkan, N. & S.	12,270	16 20	74 0	225 miles along sea, congeries of steep mountains 2 to 4000 ft. Ghauts.
	Dharwar	9,122	15 16	75 0	Elevated to the W. isolated eminences, flat summits.
	Poonah	20,870	18 30	74 2	Irregular and intersected by many rivers, fertile vallies.
	Candeish	12,430	20 22	75 0	Interspersed with low hills, to S. and numerous streams.
	Surat	1,949	20 21	73 0	Hilly and jungly to the E. & S. flat to N. and along the coast fertile.
	Baroach	1,851	21 29	73 14	Flat, well cultivated, and peopled along the Gulph.
	Kairah	1,850	22 23	72 18	Intersected by the Karee river, level, well watered, good soil.
	Ahmedabad	4,072			
	Kattywar	1,728	22 30	72 0	Unequal hills, jungles, and reddish rocks, rude coast.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — NATURAL PRODUCTIONS, EMBRACING THE ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL KINGDOMS, OF THE BENGAL, MADRAS AND BOMBAY TERRITORIES.

No language would do justice to the varied and magnificent scenery of Hindostan, partaking as it does of the richly luxuriant and wildly beautiful; *here* interminable plains, intersected with deep and mighty rivers; *there* inaccessible mountains, whose unmeasurable summits are wreathed in eternal snow;—on the one hand an almost boundless landscape, verdant with the softness of perpetual spring—on the other alpine *steppes*, ruggedly romantic, and fringed with vast and towering forests: mountainous ranges or ghauts on *this shore*, presenting a stupendous barrier to the Indian ocean,—while on *that*, a low and sandy alluvium seems to invite the further encroachments of the deep and stormy Bengal Bay. Indeed the features of British India are so varied that, although despairing to convey an exact idea of their peculiarities, I must distinguish the country by provinces, as offering the most simple mode of delineating this immense section of the British empire, whose sea-coast line (extending from Cape Negrais to the frontiers of Sinde) is 3,622 English miles, with a territorial breadth (from Surat to Sinde) of 1,260 miles: premising, however, that the leading geographical features are the Himalaya Mountains, along the northern and eastern frontier; a range of ghauts, rising at the southern point of the peninsula, running N. along the coast until receding at the parallels of 20. to 22., when they branch off in ridges of different elevations across the continent of India, until lost in the table land of Malwa and Allahabad; while on the eastward the mighty *Ganges*, and on the westward the nearly equal *Indus*, roll their impetuous and lengthened torrents from the Himalaya snows to the sultry coasts of Bengal and Cutch,

giving off in their progress an infinity of tributaries, which are ramified in every possible direction over the whole peninsula.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY.—Although it might be naturally supposed that in a territory extending over so great an extent of surface as that of the province of Bengal, a diversity of physical aspect would exist, there is with few exceptions a remarkable monotony of scenery. The province of Bengal proper, containing 100,000 square miles, has scarcely a hill of any elevation, and the few eminences which are to be found are confined to a small area on the eastern boundary.

No country in the world is better irrigated than this flat alluvial province, which has long been considered the granary of India; the Ganges, Brahmaputra, Hooghly, Teesta, Roopnarain, Dummoodah, Kooram, Korotoya, Cosi, Manas, Conki and Jhinaya, with their innumerable tributaries everywhere intersect Bengal, and owing to the lowness of the river banks, and those banks being composed of a sandy, *clayey soil*, large streams are frequently changing their beds, and causing stagnant marshes of considerable extent, by which the boundaries of property are annihilated, and the erection of stable edifices materially impeded.

The province of Bahar, containing 54,714 square miles, situate between 22. and 27. N. lat. is, with the exception of the northern division (which is an uninterrupted flat), a beautiful hill and dale country; the former extending in ranges, and in some places, as at the Rajmahal hills in the neighbourhood of Boglipoor, assuming the features of a celtic region. The soil is fertile, unless where saltpetre is in excess, but the province, it may be supposed, is not so well watered as Bengal, it is only, however, in tracts S. of the Ganges, where artificial irrigation is much required. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Sone, Gunduck, Dummodah, Caramnassa, and Dewah.

The province of Allahabad (including the rich district of Benares) is, in the neighbourhood of the great rivers Ganges

and Jumna, flat, well watered, and exuberantly fertile; but to the S.W. the country becomes more elevated, and in the Bundlecund district assumes the form of table land diversified with hills. The principal rivers are the two before-mentioned and the Goomty* and Caramnassa, with their numberless branches.

Bundlecund presents, in its physical features, a remarkable configuration; the mountains run in continuous ranges parallel to each other, each successively supporting a table land one above the other. *Bindhyáchal*, the first of these ranges, commence at *Kesóghar*, five miles N. of *Sëunda* on the *Sindhe* River, making a circuitous sweep by *Narawá*, *Chandri*, *Hirapur*, *Rajghar*, *Ajeyghar*, and *Calanjara*; they cease near Barghar to belong to Bundlecund, and continue their course by *Bindhyavasini* and *Tárá*, until they approach the Ganges at *Surajghara*, and again at *Rajmahl*. Nothing, says Capt. Franklin, can be more striking as a topographical feature than the plains of Bundlecund, which resemble a vast bay of the ocean formed by these natural barriers, crowned with the fortresses above-mentioned; and what is somewhat remarkable, the progressive elevation of the soil from the bed of the Jumna is towards the apex of this bay: hence the diminished altitude of the range at that point, being scarcely 300 feet above the surface, whilst at *Calyanghar* the same

* A canal 75 miles long, is now being executed between the Goomty and Ganges. The territory under the sway of the King of Oude is here situate, amounting to 21,000 square miles, with a population of 6,000,000, spread over one of the most fertile parts of India, but immersed in poverty and wretchedness. The capital is termed Lucknow, built on the Goomty, (a branch of the Ganges) in lat. 26.51., N. long. 80.50. E., and with its numerous gilded cupolas, minarets, turrets, arches, temples, and pinnacles, presenting an extraordinary picture of oriental magnificence. Its population is nearly half a million, whose mean and filthy tenements present a melancholy contrast to the splendid palaces and temples of their rulers and priests. Constantia, the residence of the late General Claude Martin, by whom it was built, at a cost of £150,000, stands in the neighbourhood. Lucknow contains a mixture of enterprising adventurers from various parts of Europe, who expect and generally obtain employment from the king; it is distant 650 miles, by the nearest road, from Calcutta.

range is 800 feet. The most elevated summit does not exceed 2,000 feet above the ocean level. The picturesque, numerous, and isolated hills which appear to stand alone and unconnected with other mountains, are portions of ranges which alternately appear and disappear, sometimes in the form of isolations and sometimes in continuous ranges; but they all radiate from the apex of the bay as if from a common centre, and diverge from it like the sticks of a fan. *Panna,* the second parallel range, preserves a distance of 10 miles from summit to summit. The *Baudair,* or third parallel range, is the most elevated portion of the province, and its contour describes in miniature the greater curves of the lower ranges, as if it it were the nucleus on which they were formed. The range resembles an acute spherical triangle, the apex of which is near *Nagaund,* the area being table land, and the sides of the triangle having their abrupt faces outwards. This range gives rise to the *Ken* and *Patni* rivers. The *Kaïmur,* or *Vindhyana* mountains do not properly belong to Bundlecund, but they run parallel to the foregoing ranges, and form part of the tropical zone of mountains which run across India, a tract which comprises several ranges nearly parallel. The vast province of Allahabad, as also those of Agra and Delhi are divided into collectorates, the territories under which have an area of 66,510 square miles.

Agra province, situate between 25. and 28. N. lat., extending in length 250 miles, and in breadth 180 miles, is to the N.E. flat, open, and rather bare of trees, but hilly and jungly to the S, and rather more so on approaching the western frontier, with hills of various elevations in the N.W. The soil, dry and sandy, is but imperfectly watered by nature, deep wells and canals affording the chief supply of the indispensible element of cultivation. The principal rivers (which become smaller as they approach their source) are the Ganges, Jumna, Chumbul, Sinde, and Kohary.

Agra, built on the S.W. of the Jumna, lat. 27.11. N., long. 77.53. E., is a large and strongly constructed fort, of a red kind of very hard sandstone, quarried at Futtehpoor (19 miles

distant): the fosse is of great depth with double ramparts, the inner one being 60 feet above the level of the river: well constructed bastions are placed at regular intervals, and the fortress is one of the keys of Western India, particularly from its commanding the navigation of the Jumna, which in the month of June is half a mile broad, and never fordable at any time at this spot. The moslem buildings in the fort are numerous and splendid, in particular the Tauje Mehal, built of marble resembling Carara, the Mootee Musjeed, or pearl mosque, built of small white marble, of singular purity of design: the great Chowk contiguous to the principal gate of the fort, the tomb of Etimaund ud Dowlah, &c., all attest the splendour with which the Mahomedans sought to captivate the weak minds of their Hindoo serfs, well knowing, that owing to the infirmity of our nature, regal pomp, and magnificence, often reconciles a feeble race to the despotism of foreign conquerors. The Moslems in Spain, as well as in India, expended the taxes of their subjects in erecting splendid structures, which, after the lapse of centuries, remain as monuments of the daring genius of the conquerors, and of the slavish submission of the conquered.

The census of the city of Agra has been lately estimated as follows: houses, 29,788, viz. Pukha, 25,536, and Kutcha, 4,952; inhabitants, 96,597, viz. Hindoos, 65,011 (males, 35,085, females, 29,983), Moosoolmans, 31,579 (males, 16,059, females, 15,520).*

Delhi, 800 feet above the ocean level (embracing the N. part of the inclined slope which forms the plains of Hindostan, extending from the Himalaya to the Bay of Bengal), between 28. and 31. N. lat., is more hilly and sandy than Agra; it is level in the centre, clear and cultivated in the S.W., hilly in the N.W., and covered with dense jungles and forests; the chief rivers are the Ganges, Jumna, Caggur, and Chitting; but the thirsty soil soon imbibes the greater part of their contents in the dry season; Bareilly excepted, which is level and well watered.

* A similar census ought to be prepared for every town in India.

Delhi, the ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul empires, lat. 28.41. N., long. 77.5. E., according to popular tradition, covered a space of 20 square miles, and the ruins at present occupy nearly as great an extent. The new city of Delhi was founded by the Emperor Shah Jehanabad, in 1631; on the W. bank of the Jumna, it is about seven miles in circumference; the walls are faced, along their whole extent, with substantial masonry constructed of huge blocks of sparkling granite; martello towers stand at intervals, flanking the defences, and the city has seven gates all built of freestone. The principal street, leading from the palace to the city gate, is 1100 yards long and 30 broad; the second, leading from the palace to the Lahore gate, is a mile long by 40 yards broad. Until 1011 A.D. Delhi was governed by Hindoo Rajahs, but in that year Mahmoud the Ghaznivede, captured and plundered it, but subsequently restored it to the Hindoo Rajah, making him a tributary prince. In 1193, Cuttub ud Deen, the slave of Mahomed Ghauri, took final possession of the city from the Hindoos, and commenced the series of Afghan or Patan sovereigns, which reigned until the invasion of Baber, the grandson of Timour. It was pillaged by Timour in 1398, and in 1516, Sultan Baber finally overthrew the Patan, and founded the Mogul dynasty; the descendant of whom, after 14 sovereigns intermediate, now resides in Delhi as a nominal prince, without a shadow of power, but enjoying a yearly income of nearly 150,000*l.* Delhi is distant from Calcutta, by the Birboom road, 976 miles.

The British provinces in Berar are wild, rugged and hilly, with steep water-courses, dense jungles and impassable ravines; their area is 55,900 square miles, and they are but little explored. Hussingabad, the key to the British possessions in this quarter, is situate S. of the Nerbudda river, lat. 22.40. N. long., 77.51. E. 135 miles N.W. of Nagpoor. The romantic valley of the Nerbudda, formed by the Vindhyana range of hills on one side, and the Gundwana on the other, extends in length from Gurry Mundelah to Hindia through a space of nearly 300 miles; the distance from one mountain chain to the other being on an average from 15 to 20 miles,

and the river holding its course through the valley more to the N. or Malwa side. The aspect of the valley (with the exception of the middle part) is rude and uncultivated in the extreme; forests of deep jungle extending on both sides, and rising to the summits of the adjoining hills. The soil consists of a dark, coarse earth, denominated regur or cotton soil, the product of decomposed trap and amygdaloids, which must have existed in great abundance in these districts. The source of the Nerbudda river (which performs a known journey of 700 miles) is not yet explored. The natives say it rises in Omerkuntuck in Gundwana, 2,463 feet above the sea, close to the source of the Sone; it has fewer curvations than most India rivers, but its passage is obstructed by rocks and shallows and beautiful cataracts.*

The Malwah territory belonging to Britain occupies upwards of 8,000 square miles, and is situated on an elevated plateau, averaging 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, diversified by conical, but table-crowned hills and low ridges, watered with numerous streams, which flow over a deep, rich black soil of unsurpassed productiveness.

KUMAON PROVINCE.—Mr. Trail, the commissioner for the affairs of Kumaon, says, that Kumaon, with the annexed territory of Gerhwal, forms an almost equilateral parallelogram, facing N.E. and S.W. On the N. where separated from Tartary by the Himalaya, the frontier extends from long. 79.51. lat. 31.4. to long. 80.45. lat. 30.10., giving a line of about 100 miles; the E. boundary, which is formed by the river *Kali* or *Sarde*, gives a line of 110 miles, extending from lat. 30.10. long. 80.45. to lat. 26.2. long. 80. On the W. the province is divided from the Raj of Gherwal by the rivers *Kali* and *Alakananda*, with a line of frontier of about 110 miles, stretching from lat. 31.4., long. 78.10., and on the S. the province joins on Rohilcund the line of demarcation being nearly parallel and equal to that on the N. Within the

* At Hussingabad the bed of the Nerbudda is much broken, and about 900 yards broad; but there are 13 fords within 14 miles of the town.

boundaries above detailed the horizontal superficies of the province is about 10,967 square miles, of which there are

Snow $\frac{4}{15}$—2,924 square miles. Cultivated $\frac{3}{15}$—2,193 square miles.
Barren $\frac{5}{15}$—3,655 square miles. Uncultivated $\frac{3}{15}$—2,193 square miles.

The whole province is numerous ranges of mountains, the general run of which are in a parallel direction to the N. and S. line of position. The peaks and ridges necessarily vary in height; commencing from the plains of Rohilcund (500 feet above the level of the sea), the first mountain range gives an elevation of 4,300 feet, while, the second range, the *Ghagar*, attains 7,700 feet. The intervals between the mountains are extremely small, and the whole country, when viewed from a commanding position, exhibits the appearance of a wide expanse of unconnected ravines rather than a succession of regular chains of mountains. The valleys (if the narrow interstices between the mountains merit such an appellation) are lowest on the banks of the largest rivers, and it is in the same situations that the greatest portion of level land is generally to be met with. These spots, however, in no instance, exceed, and in a few cases equal, half a mile in breadth. The site of the town of *Shrinagur*, lat. 30.14. N., long. 78.37. E., on the banks of the *Alakananda* is of this description, and is only 1,500 feet above the level of the sea. The *tarai* or forest land of saul, sissoo, and bamboos, included in the province, is very unequal in extent. Under the Gherwal pergunnas it averages only from two or three miles from the foot of the hills, while in Kumaon Proper it is no where less than twelve or fifteen miles broad. From Kotedwara, long. 78.20. to near Bhamouri, long. 79.20., the *tarai* is divided from Rohilcund by a low range of hills, which contain numerous passes, some practicable for wheel carriages; the remainder is wholly open to the plains. Where there is sufficient soil the sides of the mountains are cut in terraces (supported in front by slight stone abutments, as in Ceylon and in Italy) rising above each other in regular succession. There are several lakes, but of no great extent; the depth, however, is considerable (some in the higher Himalaya are stated to be

unfathomable) and the base of every mountain has a stream of more or less magnitude flowing silently or rapidly according to the elevation of the country. The country about Almorah (lat. 29.24. N. long. 79.39. E., built on a ridge of mountains 5,400 feet above the level of the sea) is extremely bleak and naked. Mr. Trail has furnished a very interesting paper in the seventh volume of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, on the '*Bhotia Mehals* (districts) of Kumaon, *Bhot* signifying that part of the Himalaya range which once formed about a third part of the Tibet province of Bhot, fifteen parts of which consist of snow or barren rocks: the minimum elevation in the passes of the Himalaya is here 6,000 feet above the sea:—these tracks or paths are along branches of the Ganges and Goggra, and roads of communication through the Himalaya unite the passes from E. to W.; but they are buried in snow, except for a few days in the year. The interior of the Himalaya mountains (of which a full account will be found in a subsequent page), except at these passes and paths, is almost inaccessible, and they are becoming daily more and more so. The Bhotias now point out ridges never free from snow, which, within the memory of man, were clothed with forests, and afforded periodical pastures for sheep.

The kingdom of Nepaul is one of the most interesting divisions of Hindostan. To the N. it is separated from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; on the S. bounded by the British territories in the provinces of Delhi, Oude, Bahar, and Bengal (with the exception of about 60 miles intervening, which belong to Oude); to the E. the Nepaulese territories are separated from those of the British by the river Mitchie; from thence to the Himalaya mountains they are bounded by the principality of Sikhim, which stretches N. to the Chinese frontier; to the W. the limits are accurately defined by the course of the river Cali (the western branch of the Goggra), beyond which is the British district of Kumaon. The lowest part of the ancient Nepaul kingdom, stretched into the great plain of Hindostan; the great valley of Nepaul whose northern-

most boundary lies about 27.50 N. lat., is 22 miles from E. to W. and 20 miles from N. to S. Let us now turn to view the

SEA COAST OF THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY, and the territories to the E. and Southward. The sea coast of Bengal province is, for many miles, scarcely elevated above the level of the sea, and where the sacred Ganges and mighty Burrampooter, with their hundred mouths, rush to join the parent fountain, a vast extent of country (30,000 square miles) called the *Sunderbunds*, extending for 180 miles along the bay of Bengal, is an interminable labyrinth of salt water lakes, rivers, and creeks, interspersed with mangrove islets of shifting mounds of sand and mud.

CALCUTTA, on the banks of the Hooghly, lat. 22.23., long. 88.28., distant from the sea 100 miles, and from the *Sandheads* about 130 miles, has a very intricate navigation through the banks of the sand and mud which occasionally shift their beds in the Hooghly river as well as in the other branches of the Ganges.* It is, however, very favourably situate for internal navigation, as the Ganges and its subsidiary streams permit the transport of foreign produce to the N.W. quarters of Hindostan over a distance of upwards of 1000 miles, and the day may not be far distant when the Indus and the Ganges navigation will be united by a canal. Diamond harbour, about 30 miles below Calcutta on the E. bank of the Hooghly, has a draught of water sufficient for the largest Indiamen, but ships of 600 tons anchor quite close to the

* In 1829, the author, when sailing on the Hooghly off Chandernagore, tried the depth of water at various periods, and did not find sufficient to float a four hundred ton ship. The whole channel of the Hooghly is shoaling fast, and the other embouchures of the Ganges are deepening. There is a native prophecy, that the Ganges (or Hooghly, which is merely a name for a branch of that mighty river) will flow over the spot where Calcutta with its million and a half of inhabitants now dwell; and certainly, to stand at Chandpaul Ghaut, and watch the rising of the river in the rains almost to a level with the houses on the 'Strand,' one would think the prophecy on the eve of fulfilment. If the waters ever pass the strand road banks, the whole city is lost, for they would overwhelm it in joining the salt water lake at the opposite extremity of the metropolis.

grand promenade (entitled the *Strand* road and *Esplanade*) of the 'City of Palaces.'

This metropolis and commercial emporium of the East (now containing *upwards of a million* of inhabitants), was so late as 1717 a small straggling village, with a few clusters of huts, to the number of 10 or 12, the inhabitants of which were husbandmen, endeavouring to reclaim the surrounding forests and swamps, which extended even to where Chandpaul Ghaut now stands. The city is divided into streets at right angles with each other, with large and handsome squares throughout, particularly in the European part of the metropolis, each square having in its centre an extensive tank or reservoir of the Ganges water, with verdant sloping banks planted with evergreen shrubs. The residence of the Governor General is of equal magnitude to any palace in Europe. The architecture is of the Ionic order, with arcades all round on a rustic basement. The palace has four wings connected by circular passages, in order to secure a free admission of air from whatever quarter the wind may blow. The grand entrance is to the north, where there is an immense arch of steps, beneath which carriages drive up to set down; on the south side is a circular colonade with a splendid dome. In the centre of the building are two magnificent state rooms, the lower paved with dark grey marble, supported by numerous Doric columns, resembling Parian marble; the upper or ball-room is floored with exquisitely polished dark grained woods, supported by beautiful Ionic pillars. The Vice-regal canopy and chairs of state are of light and beautiful construction. The apartments are lit by a profusion of cut glas lustres suspended from a painted ceiling with gold mouldings. The entrance gates are of a grand and imposing appearance, and the square around the palace is tastefully laid out, particularly since Lady William Bentinck's arrival in Bengal. Several of the other public buildings, such as the Mint, are on a noble scale, and the private mansions are built in the fascinating style of Grecian architecture.

The stupendous fortification of Fort William was commenced

by Lord Clive after the battle of Plassy, and has cost the E. I. Company £2,000,000. sterling. Situated on the margin of the river Hooghly (about one-fourth of a mile below Calcutta), and on a level with the surrounding country, which is a perfect flat for many miles, it does not make an imposing appearance, indeed its strength is scarcely perceptible; nevertheless it is superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India, and requires from 10,000 to 15,000 men to man the works. The form is octagon, five sides being regular and three next the river according to circumstances. The river flows up to the glacis, the citadel towards which has a large saliant angle, the faces of which enfilade the whole sweep of the water: indeed the guns of the faces bear upon the city until crossed by the fire of the batteries parallel to the river. This salient angle is defended by several adjoining bastions and a counterscarp that covers them. The bastions on the five regular land sides have all many salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks extremely spacious, and an immense double flank at the heighth of the berme; the double flank would enable the besieged to retard the passage of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed; the orillon is effective against ricochet shot, and is not to be seen from any parallel: the berme opposite the curtain serves as a road, and contributes to the defence of the ditch like a fausse-brave. The ditch is very wide and dry, with a cunette in the middle which receives the water of the ditch by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered by a large half moon without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt, but the faces each mount thirteen pieces of heavy ordnance, thus giving a defence of 26 guns to these ravelins. The demi-bastions which terminate the five regular fronts on each side are covered by a counterguard, of which the faces, like the half moons, are pierced with 13 embrasures. These counterguards are connected with two redoubts constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-entering angles, the whole faced, and palisaded with great attention to neatness as well as strength.

The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale, and the angles of the half moons being extremely acute, project a great way so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and capable of taking the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach. The interior of this admirable fortress is truly beautiful,—large grass plots surrounded by rows of shady trees, beneath which are well gravelled promenades,—with here and there piles of balls, bombshells, and parks of artillery. The barracks are spacious, and will contain 20,000 men. The wells are numerous, and there is an immense reservoir for rain water. The church is of an elegant Saxon style of architecture with enamelled glass, and the residences of the commandants of corps, and the principal staff officers, on an extensive scale. For a quarter of a mile round the fort no tree or house is permitted, and the ships pass so close to the fort that they may be hailed from the glacis.*

Cuttack sea coast is similar to the contiguous Delta of Bengal (which closely resembles the Mississippi Delta) except that the flat shore does not extend more than from five to fifteen miles inland from the Black Pagoda to Piply on the *Subanrekha*, while that of the Sunderbunds extends nearly 200 miles. The town of Cuttack (lat. 20.27. N. long. 88.5. E.,) 251 miles travelling distance from Calcutta, containing 6,512 houses, and a population of 40,000 souls, is advantageously situated, politically and commercially speaking, on a tongue of land or peninsula near the bifurcation of the Mahanuddy river (which is here two miles across) with a pleasing and picturesque prospect from the environs of the hilly country of *Rajwarra*. The town is defended from the encroachments of the river by stone revetments which front two of its sides. Within from two to five leagues of the sea coast of Cuttack the land rises into swelling undulations, extending over a space of from 15 to 50 miles, gradually becoming more elevated, when the surface assumes a hilly shape with a dry and fertile soil and magnificent forests of every description of timber. This hilly region which is termed the Mogulbundy,

has a soil of a whitish appearance, and often for miles the surface is strewed with a thin sprinkling of lime-stone concretions. This description of country extends from N. of the Mahanuddy to Midnapore. The Mogulbundy is finely cultivated, and has a most picturesque aspect. At Balasore, (where the Dutch had a settlement in 1660) lat. 21.32., long. 86.56. E. a group of fine hills of this district project forth to within 15 miles of the shore of the Bay of Bengal. The principal rivers are the Mahanuddy, (which during the rains may be navigated 300 miles from the sea) Brahmini, Biturini, Solandy, Kausbans, Burabalang, Subanrekha, &c.

The Chilka lake, 35 miles long by 18 wide, is separated from the sea for many miles by a narrow strip of land, or rather sand, sometimes not more than 300 yards broad. The native historians say it was formed by an irruption of the ocean at a period corresponding with the third century of the christian era; it is scarcely more than five feet deep, and is filling up from the sand and mud brought into it by various streams. Cuttack however is but little known; the hilly region is said, by Mr. Hamilton, to reach as far W. as Gundwana in Berar, in breadth probably 100 miles, in length 200 miles: the greatest height of the hills seen from the Mogulbundy, or central district, is supposed to be 2000 feet, their general elevation from 300 to 1200, chiefly of granite formation resembling sand-stone, and containing a variety of valuable minerals (rich iron ore is abundant) and curious precious stones. The rivers in the lowlands are embanked with immense bunds or mounds of earth, some 60 feet in breadth, and nearly 20 feet high, the necessity of which will be understood when it is known that in *one* night the Cajori river, of one mile and a half broad and 30 or 40 feet deep, rose in height *eighteen feet!* In the cultivated country the banks of the rivers are extremely picturesque. Mr. Stirling observes that the granite rocks of Cuttack are highly indurated and denuded of vegetation, presenting a bold and varied outline with frequent and sharp peaks and abrupt craggy faces; they are in many parts curiously intersected by trap veins, which seem

to consist chiefly of green stone, approaching often to basalt and hornblende rock. In company with these rocks *talc* slate, *mica* slate, and chlorite schist passing into serpentine and pot stone are found in abundance. A variety of corundum and steatite in the shape of a remarkably pure white powder are plentiful. The British district comprises an area of 9000 square miles.

The maritime province of Arracan, situate between the 18° and 21° of N. latitude, presents for a short distance from the sea an aspect similar to that of Bengal and Cuttack, but the ocean barrier being of a firm argillaceous nature with a limestone formation exhibits, instead of an interminable marsh, a series of islands, peninsulas, and isthmuses, which are peopled and cultivated. About 30 miles inland, conical hills arise to the height of 500 feet, intersected by jeels (small lakes) or rivers, and about 20 miles further to the E. a range of mountains from 2,000 to 5,000 feet high, run N. and S. nearly parallel with the sea shore. The town of Arracan (lat. 20.35 N. long. 93.32 E.) distant, in a direct line from the sea, about 50 miles, has a navigable river running close up to it, and then dividing into several smaller branches which flow through the town in every direction. The average rise of tide is about eight feet, spring tides of course rise higher. Arracan bears N.E. from the mouth of the river, and from the town are visible three distinct and parallel ranges of hills; the former being situate with respect to the general line of the first range nearly as the apex of a triangle to its base, but from the number of insulated hills and slight curvatures in the range, it appears nearly embayed in a recess of the hills. The height of the highest hill in the first range is 550 feet, and of the second and third ranges from 2,000 to 4,000 feet. The hills, generally speaking, are abrupt, and many of them insulated, About a quarter of a mile from the N.W. angle of the fort, is a large lake, extending several miles among the hills, the structure of which latter is principally schistus, no granite having as yet been observed; the soil is luxuriantly rich, and

beyond the hilly range is a magnificent champaign country, with navigable streams and particularly healthy.

The principal rivers of Arracan are the Mayoo, Kaladyne, Arracan, Monjee, and Lemonkrong: the Mayoo is the most northerly, and running in a S.W. direction along the base of an extensive range of hills, empties itself into the bay a little to the N. of the Arracan river. The largest river in the S. division of the province is the Lemonkrong or Lembroo, which after a winding course to the N.W. flows into the bay of Bengal, among the numerous detached rocks which extend along the coast between Ramree and those high insulated hills to the N. of the Arracan river called the Broken Islands. All the rivers to the S. and many to the N. are intimately connected with each other. The islands of Ramree and Cheduba (dependencies of Arracan) lie within the 19° N. latitude. Ramree is mountainous and jungly, and separated from the mainland only by a creek; Cheduba is larger, more completely insulated, rather a low island, but dry and sandy; pretty free from jungle and healthy. The little island of Aykab, at the mouth of the Arracan river is similar to Cheduba on a small scale.

The Assam territory, between 26° and 28° lat., and 90° and 96° long. is formed of the valley of the Brahmaputra, which is about 40 miles wide, by 150 long, bounded to the northward by the mountainous ranges of Bootan,* Anka, Dophla, and Meree, and to the southward by the Garrow Hills. Lower Assam, comprehending 4,100 square miles, is bounded on the N. by the Bootan Mountains, on the S. by the Garrow and Kossya Hills, on the W. by Monass river, and on the E. by Bissanath; it is a rich and valuable country, about 60 rivers flow through it, which have in general a sufficient depth at all seasons to admit of commercial intercourse. The soil is fertile and well watered; the rivers being numbered to the extent of 26, the principle of which are the Brahmaputra,

* At the foot of these mountains there is a plain of 30 miles broad clothed with the most luxuriant vegetation, like the *taria*.

Dihong, Dibong, Dikho and Dikrong. The Brahmaputra river is stated by some European authorities to have been traced to 25.54 N. lat., and long. 25.24 E., when its navigation was impeded by a mass of rocks; its channel was then 150 yards across; the natives described it as running easterly, and stated its sources to be the snowy mountains, from whence the Irrawaddy proceeds.

The country of Cachar is as yet little known. Southern Cachar, which is the most valuable part of it, contains about 2,500 square miles of level land, generally from 200 to 300 feet above the sea, intersected by detached hills and low wooded ranges, and bounded on three sides by mountains, some of which have an altitude of 5,000 or 6,000 feet. The soil is eminently fertile, and has been been found by experiment to be perfectly well adapted to the production of wheat, barley, gram, potatoes, tobacco, and sugar cane, as well as that of rice, kulaie, sursoo, &c. which latter alone are commonly raised. The population of Cachar is small, and out of all proportion to its extent, but it is very various, consisting of Cacharees, Bengalees, Munnipoorees, Assamese, Nagas and Kookies.

Cachar enjoys an uninterrupted water communication with Calcutta, besides which it will soon have the advantage of a high road, which is now in progress and more than half finished, by order of Government, throughout the country, from Banskandee to the town of Sylhet, from which place it is to be hoped it will ultimately be prolonged either to Dacca or Commillah, and thus complete an interior line of communication along the whole frontier northwards from Arracan, which cannot fail to be of immense value in a commercial point of view, enabling also the Government at any time easily to occupy in force the important pass which Cachar forms from Burmah, and which renders it in fact the gate of our possessions in the eastern part of Bengal.

The Ultra Gangetic provinces of Tavoy, Ye, and Tenasserim, ceded to the British after the Burmese war, form a strip of land on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, ex-

tending from lat. 10.35 N. to 15.30 N., 340 miles long, by an average breadth of 44 miles, and embracing a surface of 15,000 square miles. The shore is full of creeks, rivers, and rocky islets, but it is not of the swampy nature of Bengal or Cuttack. The country is diversified with hill and dale, rising towards the Siamese Mountains on the eastward, with ranges of hills, clothed with forests of teak shelving towards the sea, the vallies of which form conduits for the mountain streams.

The province of Martaban on the same line of coast as the preceding districts, extends from 15.30 to 16.30 N. comprehending a surface of about 6,000 square miles, and its physical aspect bears a general resemblance to the contiguous provinces of Tavoy, &c. Three large rivers, the Saluen, Gain, and Athran, rising in the eastern mountains of Siam, and navigable for small craft to a considerable distance from the ocean, join their embouchures in forming an expanse of water seven miles broad, opposite to Martaban, the chief town, which stands on the N. or Burmese side of the river Saluen.

Physical Aspect of the Madras Presidency.—The territories under the government of this Presidency present no vast alluvial plains like the deltas of the Ganges, Jumna, and Burrampooter, nor is the sea coast of that marshy nature which characterises Bengal, Arracan, or Cuttack. The province of the Northern Circars on the W. side of the bay of Bengal extends from 15. to 20. N. lat., comprising an area of 18,800 square miles. The coast, as viewed from sea-ward, appears mountainous to the beach; it has, however, a strip of sandy waste along its whole extent, stretching interiorly about three miles, when the land rises into detached hills, which separate the province from the Hydrabad territories. From Coringa to Nellore the shore is flat and sandy, as indeed it is throughout the lower Carnatic, extending 560 miles along the Bay of Bengal, as far as Cape Comorin, but from this point up the Malabar coast, the aspect is totally different.

The southern part of the Asiatic peninsula is, within a few feet, as high as the extremity of the African peninsula at the Cape of Good Hope. At Cape Comorin the promontory be-

gins to lessen in height a few miles from the sea, and as it approaches the ocean, runs out into a low green headland, something like Green Point at Table Bay. From Cape Comorin, through Dindigul and Tinnivelly, the scenery combines the magnificent and the beautiful: the mountains assume every varied form, and are clothed with stupendous forests, while the smaller hills, which skirt the plain, are here and there graced with temples and choultries, exhibiting exquisite specimens of architecture: winding streams flow from every hill, and the soft and lovely vallies are in striking contrast to the dark and mighty forests which overcap them.

The little State of Travancore,* extending from the Cape 140 miles to the northward, by 40 miles inland, presents along the sea shore vallies clothed with perennial verdure; then a lovely and picturesque scene of hills and dales, the latter richly cultivated, while further inland are seen the gigantic western ghauts, crowned to their very summits with immense forests of teak, bamboo, &c., the *tout ensemble* forming the most splendid picture of tropical scenery to be witnessed in any part of the globe. The British province of Malabar, extending 120 miles along the sea coast, embracing an area of 4,900 square miles, has in general a similiarity of feature to the Travancore coast, but in some parts a sandy plain, of three miles wide, runs along shore, with numerous inlets of the sea, or low downs covered with cocoa-nut trees, and the sea coast hills are separated from the western Cordillera

* Pondicherry, French factory, distant from Madras 100 miles, from Seringapatam 260, from Hydrabad 452, from Poona 707, from Nagpoor 773, from Calcutta 1,130, and from Delhi 1,400 miles, is now an insignificant settlement, on a sandy plain, not far from the sea shore, producing only palm trees, millet, and a few herbs. As a commercial town, it has no natural advantages, and cannot be considered as any benefit to France. So long as we sought or seek to maintain supremacy in India, it should not have been restored to the French; and it is wise for the French now to negociate for the final cession of Pondicherry and Chandenagore to the British government. In the event of hostilities between the two nations, the latter would immediately seize on the former; it would be better, therefore, for the French to make some compromise in time.

by narrow, steepsided, but fertile vallies. In the adjoining British province of Canara, extending 230 miles along the sea coast, and comprehending within its territory 7,477 square miles; the ghauts in many places run close to the sea shore, or hills, with naked rocky tops, are laved by the waters of the Indian ocean.

The eastern and western ghauts connected by the *Neilgherries*, a range of mountains, extending from W. to E. 34 miles, and from N. to S. 15 miles, elevate a vast extent of table land, from 2,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, partaking in its general features the aspect of the table land of Spain on which Madrid is situated, or perhaps bearing a more decided resemblance to the extremity of the South American continent, the Andes and the Ghauts of India offering a striking similar conformation, if the greater height of the former be excepted.

The *Nil-ghiri*, or Blue Mountains, are of various elevations, and almost insulated from the East and West Ghauts. Jackanairi is 5,659 feet; Jackatally, 5,976; Dimhutti, 6,041; Ootacamund, 6,416; and Moorchoorti Bet, 8,800 feet above the ocean level. These hills, or mountains rather, are remarkable for being free from jungle, and in general in a high state of cultivation. The rivers Myar and Bhavani rise among the highest peaks. Coimbatore, the capital of the province, is in 10.52. N. lat., 77.5. E. long., 120 miles S. by E. from Seringapatam, and 306 from Madras. The country about Coimbatore is not more than 1,000 feet above the sea, but to the N. it shoots up rapidly, the scenery blending the wild and beautiful.

The extensive table land of southern India is, for the greater part, under British dominion, and contains some of the most fruitful districts in the Madras presidency; viz. Bellary, embracing an area of 12,703 square miles;* Cuddapah,

* *Bellary* proper has 8,695 square miles, Harpunhully 666, and Kurnool 3,342; *Caddapah* proper has 11,852 square miles, Punganoor 652, and Banaganpully 248.

of 12,752 sq. miles; and Coimbatore, 8,392 sq. miles, — the three districts possessing a population of 3,000,000 souls. In so elevated a region, there are no large rivers, nor indeed are there any throughout the S. of India,* to compare with those of Bengal; but the small rivers which descend from the plateau are numerous, and fertilize a great portion of country. The Mysore territory, situated between 11° and 15° N. lat., in length from N. to S. 234 miles, breadth E. to W. 264 miles, with an area of 27,561 square miles, consists of an elevated pleateau or table land, from 2,000 to 2,500 feet high, enclosed on two sides by the E. and W. Ghauts.† At Bangalore, a plateau of 60 miles by 50, the surface is undulating, and nearly 3,000 feet above the sea; to the N. after passing Nundydroog, the country falls rapidly, and towards Seringapatam the surface has a sudden descent. Siva Gunga, the highest mountain in Mysore, is 4,600 feet above the sea. The rock basis of the country is a kind of syenite, composed for the most part of quartz, felspar, horneblende,

* Nor in the Southern peninsulas of Africa, Europe, or America.

† The kingdom of Coorg, which has lately occupied our attention, is situate to the westward of Mysore, of small extent, being comprised within the twelfth degree of N. lat. and the seventy-fifth and seventy-sixth degrees of E. long. It is 60 miles long by 60 broad, with an area of 2,165 square miles. Surrounded by lofty mountains, for the most part inaccessible, it contains many others, scattered over the interior surface, forming a succession of wild rugged hills and highly cultivated valleys; and, as if this were not sufficient to confirm its title to the appellation of a 'strong country,' the natives have divided the whole interior into squares. Those where no streams or marshes are contained being generally about a mile in width, with an enormous ditch and high mound or back, formed by the original contents of the ditch, and covered inside and out with deep jungle, in which are included many enormous forest trees. Some of these enclosures have four apertures for ingress and egress, one in each face, particularly those through which the principal roads pass, and which consequently present so many strong barriers against an approaching enemy. Every hill and mountain is also covered with jungle; the finest teak, jack, mango, and other large trees, growing spontaneously in a country watered by numerous streams, and continual fogs and misty clouds, which, from its great height, even above Mysore, are attracted by the hills, and cover them during the night.

and mica; the principal rivers are the Cauvery, Toombudra, Vedavatti, Bhadri, Arkanati, Pennar, Palar, and Panaur; there are no lakes of magnitude; several excellent roads exist through the province, and the bridges erected over the Cauvery river, by a native gentleman (at his own expense) named Ramaswamy, deserve the highest commendation. One of these magnificent structures, completed in 1821, is 1,000 feet long, with a road-way of 13 feet, and a height of 23 feet, supported by 400 pillars of stone; the whole fastened with iron pins and mortar.

The Hydrabad territory, embracing an area of nearly 100,000 square miles, consists principally of lofty granite ranges, and in the plains and valleys are found elevations, which are miniature features of the loftier ranges. These are few in number, and remarkably interrupted and irregular; their extension inconsiderable, and their height above the level of the sea 2,500 feet. The mountains are bare and rugged in their outline, and consist of piles of rock heaped on one another in irregular succession. The country is watered by the Godaveri and Kistna, which like all the other Indian rivers are subject to great variations in the quantity of water, and dependent on the periodical rains. Their banks vary from 30 to 50 feet in height, and about 50 miles from their embouchure they both pass through the chain of granite mountains, which extend from Gantur to Gundwana. The inundations of the Godaveri are the most extensive, varying from 6 to 3 miles on either side of the river. The rivers take their rise in the Western Ghauts, and disembogue within 60 miles of each other.

Physical Aspect of the Bombay Presidency.—The Northern and Southern Concan, forming the more southern sea coast territories of the Bombay Presidency, extend along shore from Damaun to Malabar, about 220 miles, by 35 miles inland, embracing an area of 12,270 square miles, and presenting a congeries of steep, rocky mountains, rising in some places to the height of from 2,000 to 4,000 feet, as abrupt as a wall, while in most parts the table land to the eastward is of difficult, if not of impracticable access for wheeled car-

riages. The Ghauts in general, gradually decline towards the sea, possessing in some places fertile rice tracts, irrigated by numerous mountain streams. The coast is indented with small bays and shallow harbours or coves, with rocks, ravines and chasms.

Bombay Island (containing eighteen and a half square miles, including Colaba and Old Woman's Island) is little more than a cluster or double bank of once detached whinstone rocks, through which the sea and Goper river flowed, but which the retreating ocean from the western side of India has now permitted the consolidation of into an islet, by means of two sand-belts at the northern and southern extremity of each ledge of rocks, and these natural causeways, now changing into rock, are rendered more secure by the construction of artificial dams, by which at spring tides, the ingress of the sea is prevented. On the cession of Bombay by the Portuguese to England in 1661 its population did not exceed 16,000 souls, the refuse or outcasts of the natives of India; it now contains a population of 229,000 persons, inhabiting 15,474 houses, which are valued at £3,606,424. sterling! The fort is extremely strong towards the sea which surrounds it on three sides, and the view from thence is singularly beautiful, consisting of verdant isles, and on the main land lofty and curiously shaped hills and mountains. Admirable roads have been formed throughout the island, the causeway communicating with Salsette widened, a great military road from Panwell to Poona (70 miles) with several bridges over rapid rivers, and a road cut with great labour over a high range of mountains, have been constructed.*

* Capt. Hughes, under whose superintendence the road has been constructed, thus describes the country:

'The Bhore Ghaut is formed of a succession of lofty eminences, towering above each other, the last of which attains a height of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. Its outline at a distance is bold and imposing; it presents a *plane* or table summit, with ranges of stupendous hills beyond, with the sublimity of which *Europe* possesses little that is analogous. At its foot stands the small and romantic village of Campolee, which has a noble tank appertinent and a Hindoo temple, both built by Nana Furna-

Among the numerous buildings the town hall and mint are conspicuous for the elegance and convenience of their structure. There are no rivers of magnitude on the Concan coast; when ceded to the British in 1818, almost every hill had a fortification, and every rock of an inaccessible nature a fortress, all of which are now rapidly crumbling into decay.

The districts of Surat (1,350 square miles) of Broach (1,600) of Ahmedabad (4,600) and of Kaira (1,850 square miles) all in the province of Guzerat, cover an extensive portion of wild sea coast, as well as hilly, jungly, and mountainous country, with many fertile tracts, cultivated and waste, watered by several noble rivers, such as the Nerbudda, Tuptee, Mahy, Mehindry, and Sabermutty; not available for commerce like the Ganges. With respect to Guzerat itself, Lieutenant Col. Barnewall describes it as 'a flat country, very rich and fruitful; the fields in the eastern districts inclosed, and the prosperity of the peasant marked by his dress, the

vese, the Peishwa's prime minister, at his individual expense. Entering upon the scene, language can very imperfectly describe the beauty of this mountain—the luxuriant and variegated foliage by which it is clothed; or faithfully contrast that feature with its dark and fearful chasms; its high and impending rocks. Plants of great variety, and rich in colour, and all those graceful and stately trees which adorn an Indian forest, particularly the palm and feathery cocoa-nut, are scattered over it in gaudy profusion. The views obtained from commanding points in ascending this Ghaut (particularly from the Durwazu, or Gateway), are of that order which may be termed the *magnificently picturesque;* commencing, in the foreground, with Campolee, its tank and temple, and tranquilly unfolding a *riant* and cultivated plain of very considerable extent, watered by the silvery and sinuous course of a mountain stream, that, during the Monsoon, swells into a broad and rapid river. The road which has been carried over this Ghaut has had the effect of changing the mode of transport between Panwell and Poonah (a distance of 70 miles), from the back of a bullock and shoulders of a man to a four-wheeled waggon; of reducing the hire of conveyance to at least *one-half;* of abridging the time occupied by *one-third;* and, lastly (no trifling consideration), of drawing to the purse of government a revenue of 40,000 rupees per annum. Already there is a surprising increase in the number of carts in Panwell; from 50 or 60 they amount to upwards of 300, within the short interval of two years: One habit of industry begets another.'

comfort of his dwelling, and the high cultivation of his fields.'

The Bombay government possesses a political control in the rich mineral province of Cutch, a district abounding in coal and iron, and evidently indebted for its origin to a volcanic eruption at some distant period.

The N. W. quarter of the ancient district of India, termed the 'Deccan,' or Dukhun, is under the administration of Bombay, and affords in its general features, a complete resemblance to the European kingdom of Hungary, and like the latter, though of exceeding fertility in some places, yet in many parts, owing to the mountainous and rocky nature of the country, it is exceedingly barren. The Deccan, (embracing altogether 44,987 square miles,) is by the natives divided into the Mawhuls or hilly tracts, and the Desh or flat country, the former situate along the face of the Ghauts, and the latter extending to the eastward, in very extensive plateaus descending by steep steps. In travelling southward through the Deccan there are chains of flat-topped hills, occasionally assuming a conical form, but scarcely ever exceeding the moderate height of 1,500 feet; their sides are neither abrupt nor sloping, and are covered with numerous blocks of trap rock, which in the interior of the mountains appear to have a tabular arrangement, giving them at a distance a fortification-like aspect, as if one circumvallation contained within another ascended from below. Between these hilly chains narrow valleys are formed, some of which are extremely rich, and romantically situate.

On approaching the banks of the Krishna the country is one extensive plain to the S.E. and N.W., whilst the ridges of hills on the N. and S. side are at a distance barely visible. From the Krishna river at Yervoi to the Ghatpurba at Argul, the country undulates, and presents here and there hilly ranges of broken basalt and extensive plains. On the Ghatpurba banks the hills of Pádashápúr become visible, running from E. to W., surrounded by fine valleys opening to the N. and S., in which direction the Ghatpurba flows to form the

falls of Gokauk,—a cataract formed by the descent of the Ghatpurba (here 180 yards wide) over a perpendicular quartz rock of 176 feet. Near Belgaum the country again becomes undulating—the landscape diversified by low sloping hills. The Collectorates of Poona and Ahmednuggur embrace an area of 20,870 square miles, of an irregular country, elevated 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, intersected by many rivers and streams, flowing through the most lovely valleys the sun ever shone on, overtopped by hills 1000 feet high of the trap formation, with the scarped summits peculiar to that species of mountain, and crowned by native fortresses of a highly picturesque aspect.

Candeish, another British settlement in the Deccan of 12,430 square miles in extent, is an extensive, fertile, well watered plain, interspersed with low barren hills, at the base of which run numerous ever purling limpid rivulets flowing from the table-land into the Tuptee; a large extent of country is still under jungle. The only remaining territories to be noticed of the Bombay Presidency are the Collectorates of Darwar, Sattarah, and the Southern Jagheers, containing 9,950 square miles, situate in the S.W. quarter of the Deccan. The western districts in the vicinity of the Ghauts are in many parts extremely rugged. Lieutenant-Colonel Sykes states that along the Dharwar, the Satarrah, and Poona frontier, and part of Ahmednuggur, there is a depth of from 30 to 50 miles of mountainous valleys, studded with clumps of forest trees; and that there is also a good deal of jungle. The eastern tracts are less alpine, affording more level country where the rocks, which in some places stud the surface, are buried in a rich black mould. The Ghauts along this district are not so much broken into masses, but present to the view continuous lines of mountain forests, and along the course of the principal rivers Krishna, Toombuddra, Beema, and Ghatpurba, the country is exceedingly rich and picturesque.

Rivers.—The vast territory, of which a brief delineation has now been completed, is distinguished above all other parts of the known world by two of the most striking na-

tural phenomena,—the loftiest mountains on the surface of the globe and rivers of such magnitude, that compared with them the Thames is but a rivulet.

The Indus is 1700 miles long, and for the distance of 780 miles there is sufficient water to sail a 200 ton vessel, and in some places it is from four to nine miles wide. From the sea to Lahore there is an uninterrupted navigation (for fleets of vessels) of 1,000 miles* British. The waters of the Indus enter the Arabian gulf in two great branches, forming a rich delta of alluvial land 125 miles wide at the base, and 80 in length from thence to the point where they separate about six miles below Tatta. At 75 miles from the sea the tides are scarcely perceptible, and at full moon the rise at the mouth is about nine feet; the tides ebb and flow with great violence, particularly near the sea where they flood, and abandon the banks with incredible violence: there are no rocks or rapids to obstruct the ascent, and the current does not exceed two and a half miles an hour: when joined by the Punjaub it never shallows in the dry season to less than 15 feet, the breadth being half a mile: the Chenab or Azesines has a minima of 12 feet, and the Ravee or Hydrastasis is about half the size of the latter: the usual depth of the three rivers cannot be rated at less than four, three, and two fathoms. Lieut. Burnes found the *Indus* at Tatta (lat. 24.44., long. 68.17,—from the sea 130 miles distant) 670 yards broad, running with a velocity of two and a half miles an hour, and a depth of 15 feet; these data give 110,500 cubic feet per second, but estimated in April so low as 80,000 cubic feet of water per second; it exceeds by four times the size of the Ganges in the dry season, and nearly equals the Mississippi. The much greater length of course in the *Indus*, its tortuous direction and numerous tributaries among towering and snowy mountains (the Sutledj rises in lake *Manosawvara* in Tibet, 17,000 feet above the sea) leads to such a result. The slope on which the Indus descends to the ocean is gentle, the average rate of current being two and a half miles an hour, when the

* The passage down of 1,000 miles was made in 15 days; a steamer might average six knots an hour in opposition to the stream.

Punjaub rivers navigated on the journey to Lahore were one mile in excess of the Indus. While the Ganges and its subsidiaries take their origin from the S. face of the *Himalaya*, the Indus receives the torrents of either side of that massy and snow-girt chain swollen by the showers of Caubul and the rains and ice of Chinese Tartary.

The Ganges is 1,500 miles long, and 500 miles from the sea the channel is 30 feet deep when the river is at its lowest during the dry season, and its width makes it appear an inland sea. At 200 miles from the ocean the Ganges separates into two branches; the S. E. retaining the name of *Ganges*, and the W., which assuming the appellation of the *Hooghly*, the delta between the two being termed the *Sunderbunds*. This magnificent river, like its compeer, rises amidst the perpetual snows of the Himalaya, in the 31. of N. lat. 20,000 *feet above the level of the sea!* The arch from beneath which it issues is 300 feet high, composed of deep frozen layers of snow—probably the accumulation of ages, surrounded by hoary icicles of gigantic magnitude. From Calcutta to Allahabad the distance on the Ganges through the Sunderbunds is 1000 miles, and thither the steam ship Hooghly lately made three trips; the height of the river at Allahabad above the level of the sea is 348 feet, and the maximum and minimum known rise is 45 and 34 feet. There are other rivers, such as the Brahmaputra (which in some parts is from *four to six miles wide!*) Sutledj (which is 900 *miles long* before its junction with the Indus) Jumna, Jhylum, &c. which would be considered vast rivers in Europe.

The length of course of some of the principal rivers to the sea is in English miles—Indus, 1,700; Ganges, 1,500; Sutledj, (to Indus 900) 1,400; Jhylum (ditto 750) 1,250; Jumna (to Ganges 780) 1,500; Gunduck (to Ganges 450) 980. In the Deccan and South of India—Godaveri, to the sea 850 miles; Krishna, 700; Nerbudda, 700; Tuptee, 460; Cavery, 400. Taking the limit of the Ganges and Jumna to the W. and S., and the Brahmaputra and Megna to the E. the country completely intersected by navigable rivers may be computed to cover an area of not less than *forty square degrees!*

HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS.*—The Himalaya range, or, as its name signifies, the *abode of snow*, elevates its lofty peaks from 20,000 to 27,000 feet above the level of the sea, forming an alpine belt 80 miles in extent from Hindostan to Tibet.† Twenty thousand feet have been barometrically measured and trigonometrically confirmed; at this height huge rocks in immense detached masses lie scattered about or piled on each other as if realizing the Titanic fable of climbing to heaven. Beds of decayed sea shells are found, and lichens and mosses, the last link in vegetable life, struggle through a stunted existence beneath the verge of perpetual snow. At 16,800 feet N. side, campanulas and ammonites have been found by enter-

* The Ghauts and other mountain ranges do not require separate notice.

† The principal chain of the Himalayas, running from N.W. to S.E., rises in a ridge, with an abrupt steep face against the plains of 6,000 feet in height; there is then a slope from the crest of the ridge towards the N. The mountains on the side of the snowy range consist of a series of nearly parallel ridges, with intermediate vallies or hollows; spurs are thrown off in all directions into the hollows, forming subordinate vallies. There is nothing like table land (perhaps in the whole of the mountains, with the exception of Nipál), and the valleys are broad wedge-shaped chasms, contracted at bottom to a mere water course; for this reason the quantity of level ground is inconsiderable. On the flank of the great chain there is a line of low hills (the *Sewálik*), which commence at Roopur on the Sutlej, and run down a long way to the S., skirting the great chain. In some places they run up to and rise upon the Himalaya, in others they are separated by an intermediate valley. Between the Jumna and the Ganges they attain their greatest height, viz. 2,000 feet above the plains at their feet, or 3,000 above the sea, rising at once from the level, with an abrupt mural front. To the E. of the Ganges and W. of the Jumna the Sewalik hills gradually fall off. They are serrated across their direction, forming a succession of scarcely parallel ridges, with a steep face on one side, and a slope on the other; the slope being, like that of the great chain (see *Geology*), towards the N., and the abutment towards the S. These hills may be considered an upheaved portion of the plains at the foot of the Himalaya, and formed of the debris of the mountains, washed down by rains and other natural causes. They are covered with vast forests of saul, toon, and fir, and are uninhabited, and, as on the Himalaya, the dip or slope being towards the N., and the abutment towards the S., the great mass of vegetation has a northern exposure, and the S. faces are generally nake .

prizing Englishmen,—at 13,000 feet the birch, juniper and pine appear, and at 12,000 feet the majestic oak rears its spacious head, towering amidst the desolation of nature. The cultivated limits of man have not passed 10,000 feet on the S. slope, but on the N. side villages are found in the valley of the Baspa river at 11,400 feet elevation, who frequently cut green crops, and advancing further the habitations of man are found as high as 13,000 feet, cultivation at 13,600,—fine birch trees at 14,000, and furze bushes for fuel thrive at 17,000 feet above the ocean level! At 11,000 feet elevation Capt. Webb found extensive fields of barley and buckwheat, and 11,630 feet above Calcutta his camp was pitched on a clear spot surrounded by rich forests of oak, pine and rhododendra; a rich rank vegetation as high as the knee, extensive strawberry beds and beautiful currant bushes in full flower (21st June) and a profusion of dandelions, butter cups, crocusses, cowslips, and every variety of wild European spring flowers. In the skyey villages of Kunawar, although the soil is poor and rocky, apples, pears, raspberries, apricots and other fruits are abundant, and above them is a forest of gigantic pines, the circumference of which is stated to be 24 feet and the height 180. The summer heat is so great as to uncover whole mountains of their snowy covering, and the cold of winter frequently so intense as to split and detach vast masses of rock, which roll from mountain to mountain with terrific uproar. Captain Gerrard in crossing the Charang Pass, (17,348 feet high) describes the neighbouring mountains to be all of blue slate, naked to their tops, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in their most frightful form; and the natives declare that volcanoes* exist amidst

* Since the first edition of this work appeared, I have received from India an account of a severe earthquake arising on the N. of the great Himalaya range, which was experienced throughout the greater part of Western India, on the 26th August, 1833; the vibration was from N.E. to S.W. There were three principal shocks; the first at 6·30, P.M.; the second at 11.30, P.M.; and the third, or most severe shock, within five minutes to 12 (Calcutta time). The second shock was particularly noticed

the regions of perpetual snow. Although the limit of eternal frost had been fixed by theory at from 10 to 12,000 feet, yet Samsiri, a halting place for travellers on the banks of the Shelti, is 15,600 above the sea;* the landscape is there beautiful,—verdant hills and tranquil rivulets, with flocks of pigeons, herds of deer, and lovely banks of turf and shrubs.

A village has been found at a height of 14,700 feet: in the middle of October, the thermometer on two mornings was 17; yet the sun's rays felt oppressive, and all the streams and lakes which were sheeted with ice during the night, were free and running by two o'clock. The finest crops of barley are reared here, and to irrigation and solar heat are the people indebted for a crop. The barometer gave for the highest field 14,900 feet of elevation; this verifies the observations, or rather inferences, as to the limit of cultivation in the upper course of the Sutlej; and it is quite possible and even pro-

at Calcutta by the stopping of an astronomical clock, and is thus compared with other places:

	Observed. H. M.		Dif. Long. M.		Cal. Time. H. M.	
Katmandu (Nipál)	10 45	+	12	=	10 57	Effects very severe; loud noise.
Rungpur	11 20	—	2	=	11 18	Ditto; many houses injured.
Monghyr	11 27	+	7	=	11 34	Noise heard; walls cracked.
Arrah	11 15	+	14	=	11 29	Ditto, ditto.
Gorakpúr	11 20	+	19	=	11 39	Ditto, ditto.
Bancoorah	11 30	+	4	=	11 34	None such since 1814.
Calcutta					11 34 48	No injury done.

At Katmandu 19 persons were buried under the ruins of their houses, and at Bhatgaon, E. of Katmandu, 300 souls perished. The earthquake commenced gradually, though travelling with the speed of lightning towards the W.; it increased, until the houses, trees, and every thing on the surface of the ground seemed shaken from their foundations; full-grown trees bent in all directions, and houses reeled like drunken men; the earth heaved most fearfully; in a dead calm a noise, as if from an hundred cannons, burst forth; and, to add to the impressiveness of the scene, a general shout arose from the people in every direction, and the murmur of their universal prayer was carried from the city to the British cantonment, a mile distant. Slight vibrations were felt towards Katmandu during the ensuing 24 hours.

* That is three miles and a half high!

bable, that crops may vegetate at 16,000 or 17,000 feet. The *yaks* and shawl goats at this village seemed finer than at any other spot within my observation. In fact, both men and animals appear to live on and thrive luxuriantly, in spite of Quarterly Reviewers, and Professor Buckland, who had calmly consigned those lofty regions, and those myriads of living beings to perpetual ice and oblivion. On the north eastern frontier of Kunawar, close to the stone bridge, a height of more than 20,000 feet, was attained without crossing snow, the barometer showing 14,320, thermometer 27 at 1 p. m. Notwithstanding this elevation, the sun's rays were oppressive, though the air in the shade was freezing. The view from this spot is grand and terrific beyond the power of language to describe. It comprises a line of naked peaks, scarce a stripe of snow appearing.

At *Simla* (lat 31.06. N. long. 77.09. E.) 7,186 feet above the sea, where the Bengal Government have founded a delightful station, the view of the Himalaya Mountains is magnificent. The portion visible is a depressed continuation of the chain extending from the emergence of the Sutlej through the snow, to an abrupt limit bordering close upon the plain of the Punjab, near the debouche of the Ravee; few, if any of the detached peaks rise beyond 20,000 feet; the crest of Jumnotree may indeed be seen from the highest point of Simla, which is a conical hill named Jucko, formerly in undisputed possession of the bears and hogs. This insulated point Jucko, besides being crowned by garnets, throws the waters of its corresponding declivities towards the Bay of Bengal on one side, and the Gulph of Cutch on the other; the former by the intersections of the Giree, the Tons, and Jumna, to the Ganges;* the latter by the medium to the

* The Ganges and Brahmapootur may also be considered as adjunct rivers; but they part to meet again, as Rennel observes. The two streams are as different in character as masculine is from feminine; one creeps slowly through fertile plains, under the pressure of superstitious reverence for gods and cows; the other rolls over rugged and barren wastes, where beef is worshipped by keen appetites.

Sutlej, and that magnificent river the Indus, a narrow septum; even the road itself here marks the divergence of twin streamlets, which are latterly separated 1,500 miles.

There are none of those giant peaks visible from Simla, which we hear of aspiring to 25 and 28,000 feet, threatening heaven with their points and earth with their fall; but the gelid array is sufficiently grand to excite astonishment in the minds of people in their noviciate, who behold the primeval summits sheeted in drapery of perpetual whiteness. The boundary is still very lofty, perhaps not under 13,000 feet upon the plainward slope, while the dark rock stares through the snow in the highest regions. But it is on the cessation of the periodical rains that the scene is most striking; the tops only remaining covered, glare their radiant snow at the powerless sun in calm desolate grandeur. Greater part of the bare rock is then disclosed, and the vast dim mass, just crowned by gelid points, appear like the curling crest of an enormous wave rising out of a sea of mist. The marginal limit has then receded to its maximum elevation, and may be determined as a fixed point; traces of snow extend down the hollows, and accumulations repose far below, while steep cliffs project their bare sides even to 18,000 feet, but the belt is very precisely defined, and if geometrically measured, will be found to have an uniform level beyond 15,000 feet.

The pines, upon the slopes of the snowy chain, are taller and more symmetrical than elsewhere; whole forests occur where individuals measure 24 to 26 feet round. The maximum girth in one instance was 29 feet. Close to the same spot were numbers of the same magnificent barrels, like gigantic masts, each rising as if in rivalry, and all at a level verging upon 10,000 feet, a limit beneath which on the equator (according to Baron Humboldt) the larger trees of every kind shrink; a limit which Mr. Colebrooke and clever reviewers placed close to the marginal snow in the region of the torpid lichen; but the Himalaya peer over the Andes, laugh at philosophers and closet speculators, and dwindle Dr. Buckland and his fossil bones into utter insignificance. The phenomena

which are presented in obscure caves in Europe, are appealed to in the mountains of Asia, but they answer by exhibiting a superb contrast.*

Dr. Gerard crossed the Himalaya range to the skirts of the Ladak capital. After traversing the table land of Roopshoo, Dr. G. descended into the valley of Speetee, opening upon the Sutlej at the monastery of Kanum. The Sutlej was crossed in July by a rope bridge, where the bed of the river has an extreme elevation of 2,500 feet. The mountain state of Cooloo, tributary to Runjeet Sing, was traversed by a route successively varied by ridge and valley. It being the season of rain, the landscape was obscured with mist—the roads being bad and quaggy. The lofty boundary ridge, which throws the streams from opposite sides to the Sutlej and Beas, was crossed at a height of nearly 10,700 feet. On the 27th of July, Dr. G. came in sight of the ancient Hyphasis, at the ferry of Koortor, where the river has an expanse of bed, which he little expected to find so near its source. At Sultanpore, the capital of Cooloo, he encamped near the margin of the river, upon a green sward shaded by magnificent elm trees. Sultanpore is populous, and frequented by a considerable number of foreigners. Good roads, however, are totally unknown. The physical configuration of this alpine tract is gigantic, and its frontiers well defined. The Sutlej is southward, the Hyphasis on the western skirt, while the Himalayan crest forms a magnificent limit on the N., and opens into countries of which we scarce know the name. Leaving Sultanpore, he crossed the Beas by a double bridge, connected by an island.

On the 8th of August, he pitched his tent on the slope of the Himalaya, at an altitude of 10,000 feet, surrounded by luxuriant vegetation and flowering herbs. The road up is one long stair to the crest, constructed by a fakir. On the 9th, they crossed the Himalaya by Rotang Pass, turning a little to the right to the consecrated rills of the river, which

* Letter from Simla, in the Asiatic Journal.

are collected in a small basin, walled round for the purposes of ablution. Here is the source of the Beas, which, at the distance of only five days' march, presents a formidable expanse: the extreme altitude of this spot appears to be about 13,000 feet. Descending into a ravine, the bed of the Chandera-Baga, or *River of the Moon*, was crossed by a cradle bridge. The traveller is now struck with the change of the climate, and the alteration in the appearance of the inhabitants. The configuration of the country assumes a new form, and the eternal snow gradually recedes to the summits of the mountains: even the skies have a deeper and more resplendent blue. Nothing was green but the crops; the vegetation being scanty and arid, and the sun's rays powerful. In the former part of their route they had been daily shrouded in rain and mist: vegetation was luxuriant, and the slopes were fringed with pine forests: here, however, not a tree was visible but the drooping willow, which is planted. The soil was quite destitute of verdure, and the air felt dry and elastic. On the 13th of August, Dr. G. reached Tandeh, upon the bank of the Sooruj-Baga (*River of the Sun*). The passage of the stream was by a fragile bridge of osier twigs. It has an altitude of 10,000 feet. The temple of Tilaknath is two long days' journey down the river. The valley of the Chenab, or Acesines, is under the dominion of Runjeet Sing, but the government officers seldom shew themselves so high up as Tilaknath. The whole country abounds in ancient gigantic ruins.

On the 29th of August, Dr. G. resumed his journey along the coarse of the Sooruj Baga: and on the 2nd of September, he reached the last inhabited spot of the country, at an elevation of 11,000 feet. The valley was prettily enamelled with villages and cultivation. The inhabitants, however, appeared poor, greasy, and ragged. He was greeted by one of the Thakoors (chiefs) of the country with a present of ardent spirits, distilled from malt, some rice, atta, and butter. It was now constant sunshine, and the temperature increased with the elevation, though they were still in the vicinity of

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enormous masses of snow. Darcha is the last village in the dell, and the sun's rays reflected from the barren sides of the rocks raise the temperature to 84. in the shade.

On the 8th of September, Dr. G. crossed the Paralasa chain, at an elevation of 16,500 feet, and traced the Sooruj Baga (which the party had been following) to its source, in a lake only 300 feet lower. Dr. G. remarked, 'that its surface was at its extreme ebb; thus almost verifying Moorcroft's similar observation respecting Mansarowar, a fact which Mr. Colebrooke, and reviewers, were puzzled at, and actually discredited; but it would appear that the lakes, at least in the Trans-Himalaya regions, are highest in spring, when the ice first breaks up and thaws.' In crossing this lofty ridge, the wind blew piercingly on one side, while the sun's rays were scorchingly ardent on the other. The extremely thin, dry, and cold air checks the vital energy with fearful rapidity. On the sixth days' journey from the inhabited limits, they ascended the Laitchee long range, which rose up abruptly, like a vast wall from the bed of the Chander-Baga. Along this tract are found marine fossil remains. At length, after a most toilsome journey over rugged and sterile mountains and rocky tracts, Dr. G., for the first time, 'pitched his camp upon the plateau of Tartary.' The barometer indicated an elevation of nearly 16,000 feet! In front was a black ridge, having the uniform height of 3,000 feet above the camp; yet there was no snow on its summit. The soil was almost without any vegetation, baked, hard, and thirsty. The skies were of the most resplendent indigo tint, and the air highly transparent. The attendants, who expected to enter upon a fine flat country, after crossing three successive ranges, viewed with consternation interminable Alps upon Alps arise. They saw a wild horse, at which one of the party fired; but hardly any report was heard, sound being so feeble in the rarified air. A pack of wild dogs (quite red) were also seen stealing along a gully.

On the 17th of September, his progress was arrested by the Wuzeer of Ladak. His interview with this person was

highly agreeable: his deportment, dress, and address were showy, his conversation frank, and his appearance altogether prepossessing. The day after he invited Dr. G. to dinner. The Wuzeer seemed, on the whole, to be a jolly *bon-vivant*. In impeding Dr. G.'s further advance, he appeared to rely more upon that gentleman's good feeling than any exertions of his own; remarking that he would not oppose it by rude interference, but that the consequence would be discredit and disgrace to *him*. The three days Dr. G. passed in the Wuzeer's camp were far from uninteresting: yet, notwithstanding his easy familiarity, he seemed quite uneasy till Dr. G. decided upon turning face southward, and his eagerness to equip and transport him into Speetee, by a route skirting the Chinese confines, evinced his extreme anxiety to get him fairly out of his sight, and away from the precincts of the capital.

On the morning of the 19th of September, the yaks being ready, after the ceremony of smoking pipes together, our traveller and the Wuzeer parted. His route now became excessively uncomfortable, owing to exposure to the cold night air in such a savage country. He met several groups of wild horses, which they endeavoured in vain to chase. Southward, towards Speetee, the landscape appeared very sharply peaked, and in clusters of white tops; but in the N.E. the mountains were of a vast contour, and the snow more uniformly defined. At length they encamped in a dell which opened upon Lake Chimorerel. From this spot were seen numerous herds of shawl goats, sheep, horses, and yaks. The dell, save towards the lake, was land-locked on every side; and Lake Chimorerel itself spread out its blue expanse to the foot of very precipitous mountains, forming a sharply defined and lofty boundary to the valley of Speetee, through the windings of which the route of the party lay.

On the 27th of September, their path skirted the shore of the lake, the whole circumference of which is embayed by mountains; but hill-ward, on its north-eastern shore, the mass of elevated land rose very abruptly from the water's

edge, and entered the regions of snow, which had an uniform margin of 19,000 feet. Neither this nor the other lake has any efflux, and were we less acquainted with the course of the Sutlej, we should have here at least a verification of the fact, which Mr. Colebrooke, and reviewers, received with cautious credence, and even actually discredited, of Mansarowar being entirely land-locked, conceiving that in so elevated a region evaporation was insufficient to carry off the supplies derived from the neighbouring snow; thus forgetting, or not knowing, that the absorbing power of the atmosphere is infinitely increased by its rarefaction, and in tracts so singularly arid, that the traveller beholds ice permanent and unthawed in a temperature of 50., torrents frozen fast in their fall in a medium often 20. warmer than the graduated freezing point. Throughout India, in July and August, though the thermometer often points above 90., evaporation is checked in spite of this heat; such being the density of vapour at so low a level that a damp mouldy surface is thrown over everything. Upon the table-land of Thibet the air is so dry that frost is not visible upon the soil, or grass, though the thermometer may stand at the zero of the scale. Few and inconsiderable streams pass into the Chimorerel at this season, but the dry channels of water courses were crossed, which shewed an expanse of bed that argued their powerful body at some period of the year. The highest water-mark upon the shore did not appear to exceed five feet.

The frozen zone in the tropics which the reader is now examining, is yet but imperfectly explored, and doubtless every additional information which can be obtained and placed on record will be desirable. Mr. H. T. Colebrook whose learning and zeal for the honour of his country has been productive of so much advantage to the Asiatic hemisphere, has furnished some valuable extracts from Captain A. and Mr. J. G. Gerard's geographical survey of the Himalaya to the Royal Asiatic Society. The diary of Messrs. Gerard commenced in the month of June at *Rol*, a small district in Chúárá, one of the larger divisions of

Basehar, 9,350 feet above the level of the sea, and the highest inhabited land *without* the Himalaya Mountains. Crops—wheat, barley and peas. Road to *Buchkalghat* 11,800 feet, through fine woods of oak, yew, pine, rhododendron, horse-chesnut, juniper and long thin bamboos;—flowers abundant, particularly cowslips and thyme; soil, a rich moist black turf not unlike peat. Crossed the *Shátúl* pass (15,556 feet) rocks, mica slate and gneis—huge granite blocks, vast angular fragments of quartz, felspar, &c. jumbled together in the wildest confusion, the route over which was fraught at every step with considerable danger. Upon the snow (two of Mr. Gerard's servants were frozen to death at mid-day in September the previous year when crossing this pass) at Shátúl were many insects like musquitoes, which revived as the sun rose; some birds were seen resembling ravens,—mosses were found on a few rocks; the British travellers rested for the night under shelter of a large rock, (13,400 feet above the sea) where the steep ascent above them of 2,200 feet higher seemed appalling; here and there a rock projected its black head; all else was a dreary solitude of unfathomable snow, aching to the sight and without trace of a path; when the snow was melted, plenty of lovely flowers were found, but no bushes. The snow was soft at mid-day and affording good footing, but the suffering caused by the elevation as it affected the breathing and head was very great. On the 9th June, the temperature did not rise above 41. at noon, it was 24. and 26. at sun rise,—in the evening it snowed. On the 11th June our adventurous countrymen began their descent on the opposite side of the pass, along the dell of the *Andreti*, (a branch of the Pabar river) rising near Shátúl, and halted on the bank of a rivulet named *Dingrú*, just above the forest limit. The *lowest* point in the dell was 11,000 feet; leeks were gathered at 12,000 feet; the ground was a rich sward cut up in groves by a large kind of field rat without a tail, (*Mus Typhlus*). Mr. Colebrooke here observes that the Himalaya glens run for the most part perpendicular to the range, or from N.N.E. to S.S.W. and S.W.; the N.W.

face being invariably rugged and the opposite one facing the S. E. shelving. The roads to the most frequented passes lie upon the gentle acclivity; the difference in the elevation of the forest is very remarkable, in some instances exceeding 1,000 feet. The general height of the forest on the S. face of the Himalaya is about 11,800 to 12,000 feet above the sea; oaks and pines reach that elevation, birches reach a few feet higher, and juniper was observed at 13,300 feet? A *Tagno* village, (8,800 feet) abundance of strawberries, thyme, nettles and other European plants were noticed, and the houses were shaded by apricot, walnut and horse chesnut trees. The ascent of the Yúsú pass, (15,877 feet) at the head of the Sapan river, was performed with the greatest difficulty; the glen through which the *Sapan* forces its passage becomes more and more contracted, until it is at last bounded by mural rocks of granite, between which the river flows in impenetrable obscurity under immense heaps of indestructible ice, running in lofty ridges and studded with gigantic mounds of snow. The source of the *Pabar* is in a lake called *Charámái*, (15,000 feet high) above a mile in circuit, when the river rushes forth over a perpendicular rock, forming a fine cascade, the appearance of which is heightened by the enormous banks of snow, 100 feet high above it, some of which have cracked and fallen outwards into the lake. The dreary solitude of the place was now and then broken by the tremendous crashing sounds of falling rocks or mountain avalanches. Messrs. Gerard descended into the romantic valley of the noble *Baspa* river by sliding down the snowy declivities seated on a blanket, (a mode invariably practised by the mountaineers where there are no rocks or precipices). *Rakham* village in the *Baspa* valley, (11,400 feet high) is situate in the western corner of the glen, here three furlongs wide, half of which is laid out in thriving crops of wheat and barley, and the rest occupied by sand-beds or small islands, with the Baspa river winding among them. Just above the village, high steeples of black mica rock rise abruptly 9,000 feet!

The *Kimliá* pass was attempted, but only 15,500 feet could be attained when the snow became impassable. Here the *Rusu* river, at 13,300 feet foams along in dreadful turbulence and rapidity, the noise of the torrent being astounding. Deep blue lakes were passed, along the precipices skirting which notches had to be cut with a hatchet to enable the travellers to wend their weary, dangerous route. Vast fields of snow at 7,000 feet elevation, and heavy rain and sleet prevented their further progress in the direction of the *Kimliá* pass; but the *Chárang* pass was crossed, at 7,348 feet elevation, to the valley of the *Nangalti* river. The snow passed was often of a *reddish* colour, 80 feet thick, with terrific fissures, and the descent for half a mile often at an angle of from 33. to 37. over gravel and snow, with here and there a sharp pointed rock projecting through it. At *Kiukúche*, on the banks of the *Nangalti*, (12,400 feet high) there was an enclosure for cattle, and there were a few, cross bred between the *Yak* (Tartar bull) and common cow, feeding in the glen on a few hundred yards of grassy slope of odoriferous herbs and juniper bushes, surrounded by craggy cliffs of horrid forms.

The *Tidung* at its junction with the *Nangalti* when visited, presented a furious rapid stream of great declivity, for six or seven miles the fall being 300 feet per mile, and in some places double: huge rocks were whirled along with frightful velocity, nothing visible but an entire sheet of foam and spray, thrown up and showered upon the surrounding rocks with loud concussion, and re-echoed from bank to bank with the noise of the loudest thunder; around the blue slate mountains tower 18,000 feet in sharp detached groups or pinnacles, covered neither with vegetation nor with snow, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in its most frightful aspect. (A Tartar village was found here called *Húns*). Where the dell was narrowest, there was so little space for the river that the road continued but for a small distance on the same side, and over this frightful torrent the English travellers had repeatedly to cross on ropes, or *sangas*, loosely hung from rock to rock on either side; one of these sangas was inclined at an angle of

15. Messrs. Gerard one while picked their way upon *smooth* surfaces of granite *sloping* to the raging torrent; at another time the route led among huge masses and angular blocks of rock, forming spacious caves where 60 persons might rest; *here* the bank was composed of rough gravel steeply inclined to the river,—*there* the path was narrow with precipices of 500 or 600 feet below, whilst the naked towering peaks and mural rocks rent in every direction, threatened the passenger with ruin from above. In some parts of the roads there were flights of steps, in others frame work or rude staircases opening to the gulph below. In one instance, the passage consisted of six posts driven horizontally into clefts of the rocks about 20 feet distant from each other and secured by wedges. Upon this giddy frame a staircase of fir spars was erected of the rudest nature; twigs and slabs of stone only connected them together,—no support on the outer side, which was deep* and overhung the terrific torrent of the *Tidung;* the rapid rolling and noise of which was enough to shake the stoutest nerves. Some of these kind of passages were swept away and new ones had to be prepared for the British adventurers.

From the confluence of the *Tidung* with the Sutledj, the town of *Ribé* or Ridáing has a charming appearance, yellow fields, extensive vineyards, groves of apricot and large well built stone houses contrast with the neighbouring gigantic mountains.* Nature thus carefully adapts vegetation to this extraordinary country, for did it extend no higher than on the *Southern* face of the Himalaya Mountains, Tartary would be uninhabitable by either man or beast. On the Southern slope of the range, the extreme height of cultivation is 10,000 feet, and even there green crops are frequently cut, the highest habitation is 9,500 feet, 11,800 may be reckoned the

* All the British travellers who have visited these lofty regions have expressed deep regret at returning again to the plains, notwithstanding the hardships endured and the rudeness of the climate; it is to be hoped we may soon be enabled to open a trade with Tartary through these passes, which will lead to new commercial intercourse.

upper limit of forest, and 12,000 that of bushes, and in some sheltered ravines dwarf bushes are found at 13,000 feet high. Mark the contrast on the *Northern* side, in the valley of the *Baspa* river, there is a village 11,400 feet, cultivation reaches the same level; forests extent to at least 13,000, but advancing yet further, villages are found at 13,000 feet!—cultivation at 13,600, fine birch trees at 14,000, and *támá* bushes (which furnish excellent fire wood) at 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. To the eastward towards Lake *Mánassarówar*, according to Tartar accounts, crops, forests, and bushes thrive at a still greater height. At *Zinchin*, *(sixteen thousand one hundred and thirty-six feet above the sea,)* where our travellers were stopped by the Chinese guards, about 200 wild horses were seen galloping about and feeding on the very tops of the heights; kites and eagles were soaring into the deep blue æther, large flocks of small birds like linnets flying about, and beautiful locusts jumping among the bushes. At times the sun shone like an orb of fire without the least haze, the stars and planets with a brilliancy only to be seen from such an elevation, and the part of the horizon where the moon was expected to rise, could scarcely be distinguished before the limb touched it; the atmosphere sometimes exhibiting that remarkable dark appearance witnessed in Polar latitudes. With a transit telescope of 30 inches, and a power of 30, stars of the *fifth* magnitude were distinct in broad day. Thermometer 60. in the shade, at sunset 42., and before sunrise 30. in July.

As every thing important relating to these gigantic mountains will, doubtless, be acceptable to the readers of this history, and probably at no very distant period advantageous in a mercantile point of view, no apology will be requisite for giving the elevations,—lat. and long. of the principal peaks and river sources in the Himalaya mountains, between lat. 30.33.10. and 30.18.30. N. long. 77.34.40. and 79.57.22. E. as surveyed by Captain Hodgson and Lieutenant Herbert, and which I believe has never been published in Europe.*

* The Asiatic Society of Bengal printed the whole survey in their valuable 'Transactions' in Calcutta.

Station or Peak.	Height above the sea feet.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	District or State.	Observations.
Saharunpoor	1,013	29 57 10	77 32 12	Doab	Starting point of Survey.
Chandra Radani	7,661	30 18 03	78 36 27	Rimola	Peak of ridge separating the *Alaknanda* and *Bhagirathi* vallies, top clay slate, and bare of trees.
Surkananda	9,271	30 24 28	78 16 33	Ditto	Ditto between the *Jumna* and *Bhagirathi*, overlooks the Dhoon, 15 miles direct from Dheera; summit, of a dull greyish stone having a concheidal fracture, semi-hard. Abundance of golden pheasants.
Bairat	7,599	30 34 51	77 55 26	Jaunswar	*Fort* between the *Jumna* and *Tons*, clay slate and quartz
Jeytek	4,854	30 35 25	77 19 10	Sirmoor	Ditto, extremely steep, yet heavy cannon were dragged up by the British in 1814 for its attack. Clay slate.
Chur	11,689	30 50 36	77 28 30	Ditto & Jubal	Peak, highest central point in lowest range of mountains, ridges, spurs and ramifications, visible all round, granite, firewood abundant, water procurable from snow; Juniper and red currant found on it, and its N. E. face shaded by forests of the cedar pine, S. W. face steep and rocky, with few trees.
Ditto Peak	12,149	30 52 00	77 28 03	Ditto	
Uchalaru	14,302	30 54 04	78 35 22	Gherwal	Separating ridge of *Jumna* and *Bhagirathi*, about 2500 feet above the forest limit, which is 11,800 feet above the sea level, only a patch of snow left in September.
Kedar Kanta	12,689	31 01 08	78 09 33	Ditto	Ditto *Tons* and *Jumna*, Gneis, lost all snow in August.
Changshil	12,871	31 09 10	77 56 10	Bissaher	Ditto between *Russin* and *Pabar*, Gneis and white Quartz, no granite, above forest limit, highest productions, black currant and juniper.
Wharin (fort)	10,673	31 14 25	77 29 19	Ditto	Peak of *Tungru* range, connected with the *Chur* ridge; horseshoe form, throwing off on the concave side the Ghirl and other streams, on the convex feeds the Setlej, &c. Gneis and much red and white quartz, wooded to the very summit, where the wild strawberry grows. Ghoorka forts or watch towers of unhewn stones.
1 Peak	23,531	30 18 30	79 45 54	Jawahir	These peaks are far to the E.; so far as we know No. 2 is the highest mountain on this globe.
2 ditto	25,749	30 22 19	79 57 22		
3 ditto	23,317	30 30 42	79 51 33		
Sri Kanta	20,296	30 57 12	78 47 33	Gherwal	The *Bhagirathi* winds round the western foot of this peak, where it breaks through the base of the Himalaya chain, changing its course from W. N. W. to S. S. W.
Various Peaks	16,982 to 19,512	31 14 13 to 31 26 02	78 23 55 to 77 53 49	Bissaher	S. or hither Himalaya shutting in to the N. the *Baspa* and *Sutledj*, giving rise on the S. to branches of the *Russin*, *Pabar*, &c. Various passes over the ridge from 15 to 16,000 feet high.

POINTS ON SOME OF THE RIVERS, INCLUDING THEIR SOURCES, CONFLUENCES, AND THE PLACES WHERE THEY ENTER THE PLAIN.

Bhagirathi	13,800	30 54 54	79 04 00	Gherwal	Point where the Bhagirathi first emerges from the last snow bed or glacier, measuring 27 feet wide, and but 18 inches deep. Valley 500 feet wide, and 1 mile long.
Sukhi	8,869	30 59 55	78 41 13	Ditto	The Ganges may be here said to break through the Himalaya proper: the river bed was found 1261 feet below Sukhi, or above the sea 7608 feet.
Hurdwar	1,024	29 56 16	78 09 40	Doab	Ganges enters Hindostan plains.
Jumnautri	10,849	30 59 18	78 26 07	Gherwal	Source of the river Jumna; a place of pilgrimage, boiling springs, temperature of the water 194.7 which for *the elevation* here given is nearly the heat at which water is converted into *steam!*
Beral Ganga	12,489	30 57 15	78 31 36	Ditto	Supposed source, but even here a large stream, crossed on a *natural bridge of frozen snow!* the real source about 3 miles higher from the S. W. foot of the great snowy peak *Bonderpunch*.
Tons or Lupin	12,784	31 02 48	78 28 55	Ditto	First exit from snow bed, 31 feet wide and knee deep: for several miles nothing but snow perceptible; origin from the N. face of the same cluster of peaks as the Jumna.
Lari on the Spiti	11,071	32 04 32	78 23 40	Ladao	A village here; climate so dry that the houses are built of bricks *baked in the sun*; the houses being *flat* roofed shews that no great quantity of snow falls. Shawl goats abundant.

MINOR STATIONS OF SURVEY.

Simla	7,486	31 06 12	77 09 20	Kyonthal	Now a delightful British station; view of the snowy range from thence, highly interesting.
Sabbathoo	4,456	30 58 12	76 58 37	Bareilli	British cantonment, romantically situate.
Ramghur Fort	4,054	31 05 08	76 46 59	Indus	Strong fort captured from Ghoorkas.
Jaka Station	8,120	31 06 56	77 10 06	Kyonthal	High peak of Simla range, top clay slate, bare of trees to the S. well clothed with pine forests on the N. side.
Shalli	9,623	31 11 16	76 41 17	Bagi	Connected with the Chur range, very inaccessible on account of peculiar shape, wooden temple on summit, where human sacrifices were (and are said to be so still) offered to the Hindoo goddess *Cedi*.
Malown	4,448	31 12 39	76 41 86		A steep ridge with strong fortress captured by the British 1815.

PASSES.

Gunass Pass	13,350	31 21 07	78 08 22	Bissaher	Pass over the outer ridge of the Himalaya, leading from the valley of the *Rupin* into that of the Baspa. Crossed 30 Sept. 1819, 6 miles of road over snow, very soft in some places, of which the general depth was from 3 to 6 feet, but on the summit of the pass not fathomable with sticks 9 feet long. Ther. at sunset 38° F, water boiled at 187. No granite on the ridge, nothing but gneis.
Buranda ditto	15,296	31 23 38	78 06 22	Ditto	Pass from the valley of the *Pabar* into that of the *Sutledj*.
Childing Kona	12,860	31 37 16	78 27 27	Ditto	Pass above *Muring* to *Nisang*.
Sri Gerh	8,424	31 21 17	78 25 10	Kulu	Fort on the right bank of the *Sutledj*.
Chusi Fort	10,744	31 24 56	78 28 47	Suk-hot	Ditto ditto, there are other forts equally high.
Puari Village	6,168	31 32 57	78 16 44	Bissaher	Good village on *Sutledj*, 300 feet above the river, excellent grapes to be had here.
Kanum ditto	8,998	31 40 26	78 26 17	Ditto	Substantial village on ditto, 500 feet above the river, delicious apples, and grapes in abundance.
Hangarang Pass	14,710	31 47 34	78 30 50	Ditto	Between *Hang* and *Sungnam*; summit composed entirely of *limestone*; no snow in October, though a few hundred feet above it laid in patches.
Majang La	17,700	31 48 29	79 06 54	Chinese Tartary	Ridge crossed on the road from Shipki to Garu; few traces of snow in October.
Nako	11,975	31 52 54	78 33 31	Bissaher	Tartar village in *Hangarang* on the left bank of the *Spiti*; barley grows some hundred feet higher than the village, osiers and poplars are visible near the village.
Skalker Fort	10,272	32 00 42	78 12 18	Ditto.	Fort, border of Bishar, right bank of *Spiti*.
Lassecha Pass	13,628	32 02 56	78 32 06	Ditto.	Pass from *Skalkerfort* to *Surma* village; no snow in October, but ink froze at 10 A. M.!

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—It cannot of course be expected that much accurate information should be extant relative to the geological structure of the Hindostan peninsula; the crust of the territory has in several isolated places been explored, but it will require years of extensive scientific research to form a just idea of the nature of the rocks and soil; my duty, therefore, in this as in other sections, is to register facts as far as they have been noticed, so that in time the materials for a connected view may be obtained. Primitive formations in which granitic rocks bear the principal proportions, occupy, it is thought, not only the great Himalaya northern chain, but also three-fourths of the entire peninsula, from the valley of the Ganges below Patna to Cape Comorin; although these rocks are frequently overlaid by a thin crust of laterite, a ferruginous clay considered as associated with the trap formation. The transition formations have not as yet been clearly distinguished; the secondary formations described are—

I. The *Carboniferous group*: coal occurs extensively in the grits bounding the southern slope of the Himalaya, but it has been questioned whether this formation is the older coal or only lignite associated with nagelflue, (as on the slope of the Alps), it has been particularly described, however, where the river Tista issues from this chain, (88.35. E. long.) and there, undoubtedly, bears all the characters of the older formation; its strata are highly inclined, whereas the tertiary beds and even most of the secondary in this part of India are horizontal. The coal district on the river Damúda (100 miles N.W. of Calcutta) extends on the banks of the river 60 miles, and appears from its fossil lycopodia to be undoubtedly the older coal; it reposes apparently on the surrounding primitive rocks, but it is not improbable that it extends across the delta of the Ganges to Sylhet 306 miles, at the eastern extremity of Bengal. Tertiary rocks prevail in Sylhet, and it is doubtful whether the Sylhet coal be not really modern lignite. I believe no carboniferous limestone has been discovered.

II. *Next to coal is a great sandstone formation,* which beginning at the Ganges on the E. first shews itself, sup-

porting basalt on the Raj-Mahal hills; it again prevails throughout the interval between the confluence of the river Soane, and of the Jumna with the Ganges, and then stretches across the W.S.W. through the Bundlecund district to the banks of the Nerbudda, (which flows into the Gulph of Cambay as far as 79. E. long.) where it is overlaid by the extremity of the great basaltic district, of north western India, near Sagâr; the red sandstone shews itself again emerging from beneath the N.W. edge of this basaltic district, at Neemuch, near the W. source of the Chumbul, and at Bang in the valley of the Nerbudda.

In both places, as also along the central portion of the platform before described, stretching through Malwa it is frequently covered with a thin crust of grey argillaceous limestone, supposed to represent English lias but nearly destitute of organic remains, the general absence of which in the secondary rocks of India is remarkable. A primitive range extending from near Delhi to the head of the gulf of Cambay separates the secondary rocks of Malwa from those of the great basin of the Indus, but on the W. border of this ridge through Ajmeer the redstone again shews itself, containing rock salt and gypsum. (The diamond mines of Panna in Bundlecund and of the Golconda District, are situate in this formation, the matrix being a conglomerate bed with quartzose pebbles.)

III. *Tertiary rocks* are found at the foot of the first rise of of the primitive rocks of the Himalaya; in the N.W. of Bengal where the Brahmaputra issues from them at the passes of the Garrow hills: *Cerithiæ turritelli,* remains of crocodiles, sharks, lobsters, &c. are here found, and further E. *nummulite* limestone* prevails at Sylhet.

The great basaltic district of the N. W. of India extends from Nagpûr in the very centre of India to the W. coasts, between Goa and Bombay, occupying the whole of that coast

* The soil throughout Bengal is often occupied by deposits of clay, containing concretionary lumps of limestone, called *kankar,* probably of very recent origin; it affords the principal supply of lime in India.

to its termination at the gulf of Cambay, thence penetrating northward as far as the 24th parallel of N. lat.

So far with regard to the general view of the peninsula; I subjoin, however, some detached observations made in different parts of the country, beginning with Bengal, where in the neighbourhood of Calcutta we have ascertained, the alluvial strata in consequence of a series of boring experiments which have been at intervals carried on between 1804 and 1833, for the purposes of obtaining water; the results of those experiments are thus summed up in the report of the committee appointed by government.

'After penetrating through the artificial soil of the surface, a light blue or grey-coloured sandy clay occurs, becoming gradually darker, as we descend, from impregnation with decayed vegetable matter, until it passes into a stratum of black peat, about two feet in thickness, at a depth, in Fort William, of 50 feet below the surface. This peat stratum has all the appearance of having been formed by the debris of Sundurban vegetation, once on the surface of the Delta, but gradually lowered by the compression of the sandy strata below. Assuming that the salt-water lake is five feet above the average height of the ocean, the peat stratum is about as much more below the present level of the sea. In the grey or black clay above and immediately below the peat, logs and branches of a red* and of a yellow† wood are found imbedded, in a more or less decayed state. In only one instance have bones been met with (at 28 feet), and they appear, from the report of the workmen, to belong to deer, though they were unfortunately lost before examination. A stratum of sand occurs generally above the peat clay, at from 15 to 30 feet deep, from which the wells in the town are chiefly supplied with brackish water.

'Under the blue clays, at from 50 to 70 feet deep, the nodular lime-stone concretions, known by the name of *kankar*, occur, sometimes in small grains (called *bajri* in upper India), with the appearance of small land-shells: sometimes in thin

* The common súndri of the Sundurbans.

† The root of some climbing tree, resembling the *briedelia*. N. Wallich.

strata of great hardness, and sometimes in the usual nodular shape. At 70 feet occurs a second seam of loose reddish sand, which yields water plentifully. It was reached also in the perforation under the lock gates at Chitpore, and there (as Mr. Jones had previously asserted from his own experiment across the river) the supply of water was proved to be derived direct from the river. From 75 to 125 feet, beds of yellow clay predominate, frequently stiff and pure, like potter's clay, but generally mixed with sand and mica. Horizontal seams of kankar also run through it, resembling exactly those of Midnapur, or of the Gangetic basin. Below 128 feet, a more sandy yellow clay prevails, which gradually changes to a grey loose sand, extending to the lowest depth yet penetrated, and becoming coarser in quality until, at 170 —176 feet, it may rather be termed a quartzy gravel, containing angular fragments of quartz and felspar larger than peas, such as are met with near the foot of a granitic range of hills. This stratum has hitherto arrested the progress of the auger; the greatest depth attained by Dr. Strong, near St. Peter's Church, being 176 feet.'

On leaving the low and level delta of the Ganges, and approaching the Rajemhal hills in the neighbourhood of Boglipoor, we find primitive mountains composed of black whinstone in large masses. The hills at the foot of the mountains produce flint, nodules, iron ore, beautiful agates of various descriptions, quartz, crystallizations, and hard bolderstones fit for paving. The Currackpore hills are mostly composed of quartz, from which issue many hot springs, which constantly retain their heat in all seasons of the year. About Monghyr the rocks are quartz, except a few which are composed of a slaty stone of a bluish colour; the hills in Ghidore, near Mallypore, produce good lime-stone; and at Milkee the quartz is so pure that it might profitably be manufactured into glass. The Rev. Mr. Everest, in a journey from Calcutta to Ghazeepore, thus describes the geology of a part of the country he passed through:—'The isolated appearance of the hills on the new road, with the flat plains of sand, or disintegrated granite between them, forcibly suggest that, at one

time, the former were islets in an ocean, in which were precipitated beds of their debris, and subsequently of the vegetables which grew upon them. The coal beds on the Dhammoodu abound with impressions of a reed which is not found in Europe, and may be deemed characteristic of the Indian coal. Between Bancoora and the Soane there are observable not less than four protrusions of trap, not cutting through like dykes, but pushed and spread from between the strata of sandstone and gneiss, as if forced upwards under enormous pressure. The evanescent gradations between the primitive rocks, granite, gneiss, greenstone, basalt, and sandstone, suggest the idea of their having been kept long in contact together while in a state of igneous fusion: the direction also of the trap protrusions, which, at first, dip to the N., then are vertical, and, towards Kutcumsandy, dip to the S., render it probable that they have all a common focus under the earth, and that the whole granitic plateau of Hazareebagh, and perhaps the whole range of the Vindhya mountains, has been upheaved by their instrumentality. The granite in the neighbourhood of the trap evinces, by its crumbling state, the extensive "maladie," as the French call it, to which it has been subjected.'

The same series of rocks occurs on both sides of the central plateau, extending in opposite directions—both to the vale of the Ganges and to the alluvium of Bengal:—coal is found on both sides, as is proved at Palamoo and Boglipore. The sandstones above the line are, however, more consolidated and useful. Mr. Everest supposes the hot springs, so frequent in occurrence, to be indicative of gradual combustion of the coal strata, of which there is further evidence in the loads of cinders and burnt shale met with in the mines at Ranigunj. The Rev. Gentleman ascribes the kankur formation, to the action of calcareous springs. As the Ganges is ascended towards Ghazeepore, the soil becomes more granitic, and is then succeeded by a gravel of burnt clay, argite, and cinders, resembling what is seen in other basaltic countries.

Let us now examine the Western part of the peninsula:—the elevated table land of the Deccan is* exclusively composed of rocks belonging to the flat trap formation; the hills which rise on the W. Ghauts as a base have conical or tabular forms, and are sometimes distributed in long ridges or terraces, which run E.N.E. Passing from the lower land of the Conkan into the higher part of the Deccan these tabular forms are grand and beautiful; they are generally triangular-shaped, and insulated from each other by broad and deep ravines, of which the perpendicular descent cannot be less than 1,200 or 1,500 feet: the tables are a compact basalt of a black colour, in which horneblende predominates. About Poonah, and further S.E., the rocks are generally amygdaloidal, and become lighter in colour the farther they are removed from the western entrance. This amygdaloid is in no respect different from the sandstone of extra tropical climates; it shews embedded masses of calcedony, zoolites, and green earth, and in the neighbourhood of water courses, at the depth of 25 or 30 feet below the surface, contains drusy cavities of chrystallized quartz, the appearance of which in digging wells indicates that water is near; a clayey iron ore of a dark brown colour is found at this depth, and is sometimes penetrated by circular canals which have been pervious to water; the amygdaloid rock accompanying the iron ore is similarly penetrated, but its canals are filled up by spiral pieces of white calcedony. Calcareous carbonate, denominated chunam, abounds on the banks of the water courses, and is seen occasionally in alternate strata with an impure bole, called by the natives '*geru*.' Chunam is also found in the form of calk-tuft in the beds of the nullas (ravines,) and is seen venegenous in the basaltic and amygdaloid rocks at the village of Lonud, where calcspar is also found in veins. Greenstone, heliotrope, agate, and horn-stones, are also met with, as is also rock crystal immediately on the surface of amygdaloid, or below the soil. The amygdaloid runs through the Deccan E. and W. corresponding with the hills of quartz

* According to Surgeon Bird.

rock met with in Pádshápúr. The basalt of the Deccan occurs both in columnar and globular forms, and varies in colour from a blueish grey to a deep black, the latter capable of receiving a high degree of polish, and employed by the Hindoos for the decoration of the interior of their temples. A porphyritic aggregated rock, of a grey colour is found in beds. On the N. bank of the Ghatpurba there are entire hills having some likeness to sandstone, but in fact they are aggregated quartz rock, the structure of which is extremely hard, varying from a secondary sandstone to that of a pure quartz. This structure extends to Belgaum, from whence to Kittoor numerous pieces of iron ore (some bubbled as if suddenly cooled while in a state of fusion) are found scattered over the country indiscriminately huddled together with quartz and basalt. In Kittoor vicinity the structure of the rocks is coarse slate, composed of alternate layers of quartz and iron ore, varying in thickness up to an inch, and giving a striped appearance to the rock, which is highly magnetic when cut into a parallelogramical figure.

The geology of the country between the Kistnah and Godavery is distinguished from most other countries of a similar extent by the existence of only two formations, differing very widely in their characters, viz. *granite* and *flœtz-trap*, both of which give a striking and separate character to the scenery, cultivation, and vegetable productions.* After quitting the limestone on the banks of the Kistnah, granite alone is the base of the country, even to the Godavery; the principal characteristics as seen at Hydrabad (1,800 feet above the level of the sea) Maidak, Banchapilly, Koulas, &c. are—1st. The great irregularity of extent, and direction of the ranges. 2nd. The narrow but lengthened veins or dykes of trap with which it is intersected (all running nearly in the same direction), and the masses of micaceous and sienitic granite with which it is intermixed. 3rd. The predominance of the red colour arising from the red felspar which is fre-

* See Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, No. 18, for June, 1833, for Dr. Vaysey's Geological Report of Hydrabad.

quently in large crystals, giving the granite a porphyritic appearance. 4th. The concentric lamellar and distant concrete structure, the greater facility of decomposition, and the rounded appearance of decomposed masses, logging-stones, and tors. 5th. The numerous lakes or tanks spread all over the country, some of which are of very large dimensions; within 20 miles radius from the station of *Suldapúr* on a misty morning 33 lakes were counted, most of them of considerable dimensions,—they are partly natural—partly artificial, and used for irrigating the surrounding lower grounds.

The other geological divisions of the country consisting of *basaltic trap*,* are interesting:—1st. From its appearance on the upper half or summit only of some of the granite hills. 2nd. Its transition from a highly chrystalline compound of felspar and horneblende (the greenstone of Werner) to coarse and fine basalt, to wacken, and to iron clay. 3rd. The direction and peculiar form of the ranges, the waving form of the land in some instances, and in others its flatness and conical peaks. 4th. Its intermixture of carbonate of lime with the wacken, the basalt, and even with some of the granite in the neighbourhood of the trap. 5th. Black cotton soil, arising generally from the decomposition of the basaltic trap forming the banks of rivers, and covering their neighbouring plains. This soil is rich, and peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of dry grains, such as maize, zea, different species of panicum, &c.

The vast Himalaya mountains are at a considerable angle; the dip of the strata is to the E. of N., and their abutment to the W. of S. The formations are primary; the first towards the plains consists of vast strata of limestone lying on clay slate, crowned by slate, grey wacken, or sandstone. Beyond the limestone tract gneis, clay slate, and other schistose

* The rock in which the caves of Ellora are excavated is said to be a *basaltic trap*, which, from its green tinge and its different stages from hardness to disintegration, is supposed by natives to be full of vegetable matter, in a greater or less advance to petrifaction; the crumbling rock affords a natural green colour, which is ground up and employed by the natives in painting on wet chunam.

rocks occur; granite, I believe, has not been found in the outer ridges—it occurs in the mountains near the snowy range: the igneous rocks which have been concerned in the upheavement of the outer tracts are of the greenstone trap series, and are very generally dykes intersecting and rising through the regular strata. The formation of the Himalaya have a remarkable feature,—the strata are in all directions fractured or comminuted; the slaty rocks are broken into small fragments as if they had been crushed, and the limestone rocks are vesicular or cavernous, and broken into masses. The soil is principally accumulated on the N. sides, and that lying under the vegetable mould is clayey and calcareous, or limestone gravel, and from the humidity of the climate vegetation is exuberant.

Captain Gerard in crossing the Charang Pass, (17,348 feet high,) describes the neighbouring mountains to be all of blue slate naked to their tops, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in their most frightful form; in other parts the mountains are of granite, with a great mixture of white quartz both in the veins and nodules; gneis however is the only extensive rock to characterise the Himalaya formation; various mineral productions, including iron, gold, plumbago, copper, lead, antimony, sulphur, &c. have been found.

That volcanoes exist in the regions of perpetual snow is in some measure proved by the earthquake which recently occurred, as detailed at page 96; but it is remarkable that over so vast an extent of territory as Hindostan there should be so very few indications of the effects of subterranean fires;—on the contrary, traces of a universal deluge are most striking, not merely in the appearance of the land, its waving outline, and stupendous water courses, but in the fossil remains now being daily discovered; and the extensive beds of shells found on the highest grounds.

Dr. Gerard, in a letter to the Asiatic Society, describes some extensive tracts of shell formations, discovered by him in the Himalaya range at 15,000 feet above the sea; The principal shells comprised cockles, muscles, and pearl fish,

univalves, and long cylindrical productions which are most singular objects. He found them lying upon the high land at 15,500 feet, in a bed of granite and pulverized state; the adjacent rocks being at the same time of shell limestone. All the shells were turned into carbonate of lime, and many were crystallized like marble; the larger blocks, composed of a multitude of shells of different sizes, imbedded in a matrix of calcareous tufa, was broken off from a solid mass of 150 cubic feet, apparently all of the same structure: four classes of shell formation were distinguished; in particular a *fresh water* bivalve, resembling the unio, which exists in great abundance at the foot of the lower hills throughout the plains of the Doab.

In the Neermal hills,* lying N. of the Godaveri river, on the road from Hydrabad to Nâghpûr, many very perfect fossil shells, mostly bivalves, and evidently marine, have been recently discovered embedded in a volcanic rock, together with the head and vertebræ of a fish. The formations rest every where on granite, and have the usual characters of this class of hills. A series of hot springs occur holding lime in solution.

The *Soils* of Hindostan vary of course with the geological characters of the country—in the deltas of rivers, consisting of a rich alluvium—and in countries of a trap formation; a stiff clayey and tenacious surface, highly fertile when irrigated, prevails. In Lower Bengal the fertility of the soil seems to be inexhaustible, owing perhaps to its saline qualities; for several centuries it has been in unceasing cultivation as the granary of India, rudely tilled, without the application of scientific principles to agriculture, and yet there seems to be

* The Neermal Hills belong to *Sehsa* range, extending from S.E. to N.W. several hundred miles. The *Lunar* Lake is 40 miles from Saulna, and is a vast crater, 500 feet deep and from four to five miles round the margin; its waters are green and bitter, supersaturated with alkaline carbonate, and containing silex in solution, as well as some iron. The mud is black, and abounding in sulphuretted hydrogen; nevertheless the water is pure, and without smell.

no diminution in its fertility; as we ascend the Ganges the quality of the earth of course varies.

The following is an analysis of three specimens of soil from sugar cane fields; the *first* was from a village on the Sarju, 10 miles N. of the Ganges, at Buxar; the other two from the S. of the Ganges near the same place. Numbers one and two require irrigation, three was sufficiently retentive of moisture to render it unnecessary; there is a substratum of *Kankur* throughout the whole of that part of the country, and to some mixture of this earthy limestone with the surface of the soil the fertility of the latter is ascribed; the sugar cane grown yielded a rich juice.

	No.1.	No.2.	No.3.
Hygrometric moisture on drying at 212°	2.5	2.1	3.6
Carbonaceous and vegetable matter on calcination	1.8	2.1	4.0
Carb. lime from digestion in nitric acid and precipitation, by carb. pot. (No. 3 alone effervesced)	1.6	0.6	3.9
Alkaline salt dissolved	1.0	1.1	0.3
Silex and alumina	94.1	24.1	88.2
	100	100	100

The earths were not farther examined, but the two first consisted chiefly of sand; the third somewhat argillaceous. All were of a soft, fine ground alluvium, without pebbles, the analysis confirmed the quantities ascribed to each specimen.

Taking another country of different formation as a specimen, I close this section. The soils vary of the Hydrabad district, with the facility with which the rock of which they are formed decomposes; it is generally silicious. The analysis of a garden soil at the cantonment of Secundarabad which had not received much manure, shewed specific gravity 1.70. Four hundred and eighty grains contained water of absorption, 10 grains; stones consisting of quartz and felspar, 255 grains; vegetable fibre, 2; silicious sand 154=431 grains. Of minutely divided matter separated by infiltration, viz. carbonate of lime, 7; vegetable matter, 7; oxide of iron, 2. 5.; salt, 4; silica, 20; alumina, 8; loss, 10. 5. Total. 480. The richest soil in this district, and the most

spontaneously productive is that arising from the decomposition of the clay slate.

The soil of Bengal is extremely shallow, and a compound of saltish mud and sand, the former derived from the inundations of the rivers washing down the richest particles of the surface in the upper provinces, and the sand probably being the reliquies of the ocean which is here retreating from the land. The Regur or cotton ground, which extends over the greatest part of central India, is supposed to be a disintegration of trap rocks; it require neither manure nor rest, slowly absorbs moisture, and retains it long, and it has produced the most exhausting crops in yearly succession for centuries. The salpetre or nitrous soil is general in Bahar. All the soils of India have in general a powerful absorbing quality; hence, their fertile properties.

CLIMATE.—The temperature of so wide an extent of country as British India, and of such different degrees of elevation is, of course, very varied; for its exposition I shall, therefore, adopt the division pursued in the preceding sections.

BENGAL PROPER.—No tract of country inhabited by man possesses a more damp climate than this flat province, where nearly one half the year it rains incessantly, and during the other half the dews are most penetrating. *(For its effects see Population Chapter).* Mr. Hamilton thinks the dampness of the climate cannot be ascribed to any inherent moisture of the earth, but that it must originate from the want of a general system of drainage, from luxuriant vegetation and deficient ventilation; but I think it evident that the saline quality of the earth and of the plants which grow in it peculiarly fit it for the retention of the vast quantity of rain, (amounting to 70 or 80 inches) which falls in the rainy season, coming in with June and continuing to the middle or end of October. During this humid period, the range of the thermometer affords no indication of the climate, or more properly speaking oppressiveness, of the weather; it may ascend to 88. or 90. F., or descend to 79. or even 72., but the exhaustion of the European bodily frame still remains unchanged.

I have felt more sinking—more prostration of strength in Bengal, lying on a couch beneath a *punka* with the thermometer at 77. or 80., than in riding through the forests of New Holland during the blowing of a hot wind, with the thermometer at 110. F. The reason was, that in the former the atmosphere was saturated with moisture, and in the latter almost painfully constrictive with dryness. To judge, therefore, of the effects of heat on the animal frame merely by referring to the height of the mercury in Fahrenheit's bulb, is exceedingly fallacious.

The *rainy* season* in Bengal is succeeded by what is termed the *cold* season, which lasts from November to the middle of February, when the *hot* season begins, and continues to the middle of June. During the cold season the air is clear, sharp and bracing in some degrees. Ther. 65. to 84. mean 72.; Bar. medium 29.96.

The commencement of the *hot* season in the lower parts of the province is almost intolerable even to a native of the country; men and beasts have been known to fall dead in the streets of Calcutta in April and May, the sun's fervid rays, so advantageous to the farmer and shepherd, seem to penetrate to the very marrow, while not a cloud appears in the heavens to check his burning beams. When the monsoon is on the eve of changing, the very air feels as it were

* Influence of the moon in producing rain (Calcutta) in each year.

	First 4 months in each year.		For each year.		N.B. I give this table as illustrative of facts adduced in reference to the same subject in the Southern Hemisphere. (See Vol. IV.)
	Inches of rain within 7 days of new moon.	Inches of beyond that period.	No. of rainy days within 7 days of new moon.	No of rainy days beyond that period.	
1825	1.82	0.58	8	4	From these observations, as well as others, made by the Rev. R. Everest, it appears that rain fell most abundantly on the 2nd, 5th, 6th, and 7th days before the new moon, and the 6th day after it.
1827	1.62	1.00	5	3	
1828	0.16	1.82	1	5	
1829	1.72	0.90	3	0	
1830	6.48	0.74	9	3	
1831	5.55	1.85	8	4	
1832	4.86	2 25	6	2	
1833	3.10	1.00	5	2	
Total	25.31	9.24	45	23	

thick, respiration is laborious and all animated nature languishes, the oppressiveness of the night being nearly as great as that of the day. The following is a—

Meteorological Register for Calcutta during the Year 1833 (Assay Office).

	Barometer, reduced to 32. F.				Temperature of air in an open Viranda.				Hair Hygrometer.		Rain.	Wind.	Weather.
	5 A. M.	10 A. M.	4 P. M.	10½ P. M.	Minimum, 5 P. M.	10 A. M.	Regulated Maximum.	10½ P. M.	10 A. M.	4 P. M.	Inches.		
	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.	deg.			
January..	30.036	.095	.979	.056	61.1	68.0	81.3	66.4	85	78	0.05	Northerly.	Fine, clear & dry.
February	.923	.969	.844	.951	67.5	74.0	83.5	71.5	86	78	0.48	Light airs.	Generally fine.
March ..	29.788	.880	.757	.829	75.0	82.3	91.7	77.8	90	80	1.77	S. (monsoon)	Squally, hazy.
April	.692	.765	.650	.699	78.8	87.5	97.2	80.8	92	83	3.52	Ditto.	Frequent storms.
May.....	.565	.617	.545	.593	80.8	87.5	94.0	83	95	90	12.86	Variable.	Oppressive heat.
June	29.511	.569	.485	.550	84.3	90.5	95.8	85.1	92.5	88.2	3.04	Ditto.	Cool, with rain.
July.....	.484	.533	.454	.522	81.3	86.3	91.8	83	95.4	94.0	12.44	Do. & calm.	Moderately rainy.
August ..	29.548	.599	.520	.582	81.0	85.0	90.2	80.5	96.0	93.0	8.15	Ditto.	Ditto.
September	29.593	.652	.548	.612	81.1	86.3	93.5	82.6	95	92	8.19	S. and E.	Squally; thunder.
October..	.790	.860	.751	.819	78.8	85.2	93.5	80.7	91	87	3.68	Calm.	Fine weather.
November	29.953	30.029	.926	.978	70.3	79.0	89.2	74.7	88	74	0.66	Light breezes	Steadily fine.
December	29.927	.014	.906	.957	63.0	71.7	82.3	66.7	89.4	85.7	2.57	Ditto.	Sharp and cold.

On the N. E. frontier of Bengal, where the country begins to be elevated above the level of the sea, the climate, when the land is cleared, is described to be very fine: indeed a sanatarium has been established at Churra Poonjee in the Kossya hills, situated about four marches distant from Sylhet, and the same N. from Assam; a detachment of sick artillery sent thither speedily recovered health, and the station has the advantage of being an important military position as well as a delightful sanatarium: two spots are described as exceedingly eligible for cantonments. One a fine plain, extending from the hill Chillingdes eastward to Nongkreem, and presenting a surface of about four or five square miles, unbroken by any undulation which could not be easily rendered practicable for wheeled carriages. The altitude is probably about 6,800 feet, and the climate so moderate, that in May woollen clothes are worn by all the Europeans from choice. In winter there are frosts, but it does not appear that snow ever falls. The second spot is the plain, about three miles S. of Nogundee, crossed by the road between that place and Sunareem. This possesses all the advantages of the former,

but is probably a little lower, though not so much so as to be perceptibly warmer; and the access from this spot to Pundua is easier, besides enjoying obvious advantages of health and comfort, as crops in either of these positions would be prepared on emergency to afford a speedy and effectual support to any part of the N.E. frontier.

Nuncklow station in the Kossya hills (the climate of which is now so much appreciated) is in N. lat. 25.40.30., E. long. 91.30., and 4,550 feet above the level of the sea; it is described to be one of the loveliest spots in the world—more like a gentleman's demesne in England than what India is so erroneously supposed to be—all swamps or sand. The thermometer in May ranges from 67. to 75., in June from 68. to 72. and frost and ice exist in winter.

Arracan.—The prevailing winds are two monsoons as in Bengal, but owing to local circumstances the S. W. blows more frequently from the S., and the N. E. more to the W. of N. The *changes* of the monsoon are also not so distinctly marked; the S. W. is of the longest duration, beginning in April and ending in November. Our troops suffered much in Arracan during the Burmese war, but there is no doubt that as cultivation extends, the climate of Arracan will be found far superior to that of Lower Bengal. The principal rainy months are May, June, and July—70 inches fall in June and 59 in July.

Bahar.—The climate is divided into three seasons as in Bengal, but the intensity of the heat and moisture is considerably mitigated; from its elevation above the level of the sea, the cold season is more extended in duration and more frigid.

Tirhoot, a district of Bahar, between 27° and 28° N. lat. extending in a S. E. direction 160 miles, and bounded to the N. by a lofty chain of mountains separating it from the alpine kingdom of Nepaul, is placed in a happy medium free from the fogs of Bengal and the dry parching winds of the N. W. provinces. The soil is luxuriantly fertile, and almost every

European fruit and vegetable is produced in perfection and in abundance in Tirhoot. The following shews the—

Barometrical Pressure and Temperature at Tirhoot.*

	Barometer, at 32°, (inches.)			Thermometer (degrees.)				
	Average Monthly Altitude.	Monthly deviation from Annual Mean.	Mean Monthly diurnal Oscillation.	Average height in the house.	Mean of daily extremes in open air.	Monthly deviation from Annual Mean.	Mean diurnal range.	Wind.
January	29.698	+.308	.111	60.6	60.4	—17.6	19.0	E. and W.
February..	.575	+.165	.101	66.4	66.7	—11.3	23.2	W.
March	.479	+.089	.087	76.3	76.1	— 1.9	23.9	W.
April.....	.369	—.021	.089	81.6	85.2	+ 7.2	24.1	W. and E.
May	.522	—.138	.071	85.3	89.2	+ 7.3	19.5	E.
June	.146	—.244	.068	86.0	86.7	+11.2	19.1	E.
July	.125	—.265	.060	84.6	84.5	+ 8.7	12.3	E.
August	.173	—.217	.070	83.2	85.0	+ 6.5	9.8	E.
September	.237	—.153	.085	84.3	81.5	+ 7.0	10.5	E.
October ...	.445	+.055	.093	81.5	73.8	+ 3.5	14.7	E
November	.570	+.080	.090	78.4	——	— 4.2	21.9	E.
December	.614	+.224	.080	63.6	61.6	—16.4	17 7	W.
Mean . .	29.390	range .573	.084	77.5	78.0	range 28.8	17.9	

The *Western provinces* under the Bengal Presidency, viz. Allahabad, Agra, Delhi, &c. are temperate, but hot winds blow during a part of the warm season, when the wealthier natives sometimes resort to underground habitations to escape their torrifying effects.

The climate of central India is mild, and approaches much to that of the S. parts of Europe, or to the table land of Spain; although the mercury may rise to 100. during the day, the nights are bland and invigorating.

* The climate of Benares is pretty similar to that of Tirhoot.

The English dominions among the hills and along the Kumaon province are blessed with a delicious climate, the rigours of the winter solstice being moderated by great solar radiation, while the summer heats are tempered by the contiguous eternal snow-topped Himalaya. Indeed, during the summer season, the vicinity of the frozen regions causes a continued current of atmosphere, which sets in daily as regularly as a sea breeze on a tropical shore, and with a nearly similar invigorating freshness. At Saharunpoor, in 30° lat. and 1,000 feet above the sea, the climate is similar to the southern parts of Europe; the mean temperature throughout the year is about 73., and monthly mean temperature at Saharunpoor, (1,000 feet above the sea).

Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
52°	55°	67°	78°	85°	90°	85°	83°	79°	74°	64°	55°
At Mussoorri (7,000 feet high).											
39	40	52	60	72	73	66	65	61	60	52	40

Mr. Trail thus describes the climate of the Bhot mehals (districts) of the Kumaon territory.—'During full half the year, the surface is wholly covered with snow, beginning to fall about the end of September, and continuing to accumulate to the beginning of April. In open and level situations, where the bed of snow is in some years 12 feet deep, it is dissipated early in June; in the hollows not till the middle of July. During the five months of absence of snow, the thermometer ranges at sun-rise from 40. to 55., and at mid-day from 65. to 75. in the shade, and from 90. to 110. in the sun. At *Hawil Bagh* in Kumaon, 3,887 feet above the sea, the range of the thermometer during the year was

	7 A.M.	2 P.M.		7 A.M.	2 P.M.		7 A.M.	2 P.M.		7 A.M.	2 P.M.
Jan.	35°	47°	April	54°	66°	July	72°	78°	Oct.	55°	69°
Feb.	37	55	May	57	73	Aug.	72	79	Nov.	42	60
March	46	61	June	73	76	Sep.	65	67	Dec.	34	52

The heat of course diminishes as the height increases, and at Almora town in 29.30. (5,400 feet high) the difference is 2. or 3. less than the above average. During the cold season, on the contrary, from the greater evaporation, the thermo-

meter before sunrise is always lowest in the vallies, and the frost more intense than on the hills of moderate height (that is below 7,000 feet) while at noon the sun is more powerful. The extremes in 24 hours have been known 18. and 51. The snow does not fall equally every year; the natives fix on every third year as one of heavy snow, but in general it does not lie long, except on the mountain tops and ridges. On the Ghagar range between Almora and the plains, snow remains so late as the month of May. At Masuri, 6 to 7,000 feet high, the mean animal heat is only 57. F.; indeed at 4,000 feet elevation the hot winds cease, and vegetation assumes a European character. The quantity of rain falling at Almora is from 40 to 50 inches per annum.

Of the British territories in Berar we know as I have before said, little or nothing certain; dense jungles and foaming cataracts impede the steps of the meteorological inquirer.

Orissa, or more properly speaking Cuttack, enjoys in the neighbourhood of the sea a refreshing breeze. Pooree on the coast is considered by Dr. Brander the Montpellier of Bengal, the climate being less moist, and a refreshing sea-breeze blowing continually from March to July; it is thus also with the Ultra Gangetic territories, viz. Assam, Tavoy, Ye, Tenasserim, &c., where the high lands are cool and not unsuited even to European constitutions, when the jungle has been cleared. The Cachar territory recently acquired is much praised by Captain Fisher, who says—'It is as sweet a country as I can well imagine, and it exceeds in fertility almost any country in India, although enjoying the very great advantage of being above inundations; it is therefore not only adapted to a rice crop, but to almost all other species of produce, and I should specify *sugar* as the one best adapted to the soil and climate. I have traversed the greater part of the cultivated grounds, or rather seen portions of the cultivation in all parts, and I cannot speak too highly of the standing rice crop, which is luxuriant and heavy, standing in most parts *five feet* above the ground, which is perfectly dry. Any one possessed of half a dozen thousand rupees, would

here acquire for himself a princely domain, and before long would secure for his family a very handsome income. I have been out the greater part of every day, and find the climate very delightful; the heat is bearable, and the cold never intolerable. I am persuaded that, with good sense and better culture, these hills would yield an abundant crop of cotton; and it is here, if any where, that the coffee would succeed, as there are neither hot winds nor inundation. I have procured the Naga receipt for rice-beer, which is regularly malted; the Nagas speak of the beer as both meat and drink. The mountains are favourable to the growth, not only of cotton, but of various plants and grains. Perhaps no country in Asia presents greater variety of vegetable productions; from the oak and vine to the rattan and strawberry; such, indeed, is the fertility of the soil at every altitude, that it seems likely every plant, whether of European or Asiatic origin, could be successfully raised on the Cachar hills.'

SOUTHERN INDIA.—The climate is influenced by the N. E. and S. W. monsoons, and by the elevation of the country, the low lands being extremely hot, with dense exhalations, and the upper dry, cool and healthy, as on the Mysore table land. The thermometer ranges in the Carnatic higher than in Bengal (to 100. and 106. F.), but the moisture or evaporation not being so great, the heat is less severely felt; but on the other hand, the cold season is of very short duration.

THE SETTING IN OF THE MONSOON AT MADRAS has been often described. On the 15th of October, the flag-staff is struck, as a signal for all vessels to leave the roads, lest they should be overtaken by the monsoon. The premonitory symptoms of the approaching 'war of elements' are small fleecy clouds appearing, at intervals, to rise from the horizon, and to dissipate, in a thin and almost imperceptible vapour, over the deep blue of the still bright sky. A slight haze upon the distant waters, seems gradually to thicken, although not to a density sufficient to refract the rays of the sun, which still flood the broad sea, with one unvarying mass of glowing light. A sensation of suffocating heat in the at-

mosphere, oppresses the lungs and saddens the spirits. Towards the afternoon, the aspect of the sky begins to change; the horizon gathers blackness,—masses of heavy clouds appear to rise from the sea, black and portentous, accompanied by sudden gusts of wind, succeeded by an intense, death-like stillness, as if the air were in a state of utter stagnation, and its vital properties arrested. Meanwhile, the lower circle of the Heavens are of a deep brassy red; from the partial reflection of the setting sunbeams upon the thick clouds, which every where overspread it. The atmosphere becomes condensed almost to the thickness of a mist—increased by the thin spray scattered over the land, from the sea, by the violence of the increasing gales. The rain now begins to fall in sheeted masses, and the wind to howl more continuously; which, mingling with the roaring of the surf, produces a tumultuous union of sounds, perfectly deafening. The pale lightning streaming from the clouds in broad sheets of flame, appears to encircle the Heavens, as if every element had been converted into fire, and the world was on the eve of a general conflagration; whilst the thunder peal instantly following, is like the explosion of a gunpowder magazine, or the discharge of artillery in the gorge of a mountain, where the repercussion of surrounding hills multiplies, with terrific energy, its deep and astounding echoes. The Heavens seem to be one vast reservoir of flame, propelled from its voluminous bed by some invisible but omnipotent agency, and threatening to fling its fiery ruin upon every thing around. In some parts, however, of the pitchy vapour by which the skies are completely overspread, the lightning is seen only occasionally to glimmer in faint streaks of light, as if struggling, but unable to escape from its prison, igniting, but too weak to burst, the impervious bosom of those capacious magazines, in which it was at once engendered and pent up. So heavy and continuous is the rain, that scarcely any thing, save those vivid bursts of light which nothing can arrest or resist, is perceptible through it. The surf, raised by the wind, and scattered in thin billows of foam, over the

esplanade, extends several hundred yards from the beach. Fish upwards of three inches long, are found upon the flat roofs of houses in the town, during the prevalence of the monsoon—either blown from the sea, by the violence of the gales, or taken up in the water spouts, which are very prevalent in this tempestuous season. It is, however, by these violent conflicts of the aerial elements that a tropical atmosphere is purified and rendered, not merely respirable, but absolutely delicious when the storm has subsided.

In Travancore, owing to the proximity of the ocean, and the waters on either side of the peninsular promontory, the climate is moist but not oppressive, as the sea breeze blows from one quarter or another the whole year round.

The climate of the Neilgherry hills resembles in the higher parts that of the great intertropical plateaus of America, which have become the centres of civilization in the new hemisphere, with the additional advantage, that it is not subject to an inconvenience attending the latter, namely, the sudden changes, and cold piercing winds occasioned by the variety of lofty mountains. The mean temperature at *Ootocamund* is rather more than that of London, but the annual range is very small, and the heat never sufficient to bring the more delicate European fruits to perfection. At the height of that station, Dr. Christie observes, the cultivation of corn and vegetables, can alone be expected to succeed; but lower down, at an elevation of from 5,000 to 6,000 feet, the valleys enjoy the delicious climate of Italy. It may here be reckoned, as applicable to all India, that the climate of the eastern as well as of the western hemisphere, is undergoing a remarkable change, one of the proofs of which is the length of *twilight* now visible and increasing in India, where none was formerly observed. Indian twilights are, however, now nearly as distinct as the European interval between sunset and darkness.

At Coimbatore the temperature during the cold season is minimum 31. F. maximum 59. F.; in April 65. in May 64. (a fuller detail is given at page 133) there are no sultry nights, a blanket being agreeable at all seasons of the year, the Neilgherries are indeed remarkable, not merely for the mildness

of the climate, but also for its equability; the air is at all times perfectly clear, being beyond the zone of clouds and mists, yet the influence of both monsoons is felt; the elasticity of the atmosphere is evidenced by the remarkable distance within which sound is heard, and the lightness and buoyancy of the animal spirits, indeed it is an ordinary custom with the natives, when any thing tickles their fancy, to retire to a sequestered spot, cast themselves on a verdant bank, and there yield to the delightful enjoyment of a long continued burst of laughter, which we sombre mortals would find it difficult to rival, even with Momus Matthews before us.

Bangalore (lat. 12.57. N. long. 77.38. E.) is one of the healthiest and gayest stations in India, and remarkable for the wholesomeness of its atmosphere. The thermometer seldom rises above 82. or falls below 56. F. The vine and cypress grow luxuriantly; apple and peach trees yield delicious fruit, and strawberries are raised in the principal gardens. The monsoons, which sometimes deluge the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, have their force broken by the lofty Ghauts, and the *tableau* of Mysore (on which Bangalore is situate) is constantly refreshed by genial showers, which preserve the temperature of the air, and the lovely verdure of the fields throughout the entire year.

The Malabar and Canara coasts are not unhealthy (tropically speaking) except in the marshes beneath the Ghauts, where the miasm, as in all similarly situated places, is very deleterious.

In the Mahratta country, the N. western parts towards the Ghaut mountains, which attract the clouds from the Indian ocean, are visited with profuse rain, which sometimes continues three or four weeks without intermission, while to the S. and E., perhaps not 30 miles distant, not a drop of rain has fallen during the same period.

As we proceed to the N. and W. peninsula, the climate approaches to that described under the western provinces of the Bengal Presidency, except in the neighbourhood of the sea. In Guzerat the westerly winds are burning hot in May, June and July:—Candeish has a luxurious climate like Malwah;

and Poonah, a central station in Upper India, 2,500 feet above the level of the sea, 100 miles from Bombay and 75 miles from the nearest sea coast; is delightfully situate within 30 miles of the Ghauts.

On the whole it may be said, that the climate of the British possessions on the continent of Asia, is essentially of a tropical nature, though varying in intensity, and sometimes verging into that of the temperate zone, either by reason of the peculiarities of the soil, or its elevation above the level of the sea. The following table affords a comparative view of the monthly and yearly mean temperature of the air of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and the Neilghery mountains, (8,000 feet high) compared with the temperature of the city of London, and the fall of rain in England.

	Calcutta.		Bombay.		Madras.		Neilgherics.			London.		
	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Monthly Means.		Average of rain for two years.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Average of rain for two years.
							6 A.M.	3 P.M.				
	3 P.M.	6 A.M.	4 P.M.	11 A.M.					Inches.			Inches.
Jan....	75.1	63.	78	76	82.2	74.1	45¾	57¼	1.17	39.6	32.6	1.483
Feb....	80.	67.	78	76	84.5	73.8	45½	59½	0	42.4	33.7	.746
March..	88.1	68.	81	80	87.6	78.7	58	63	2.47	50.1	33.7	1.440
April...	95.1	79.1	84	83	92.	84.1	58	63¾	3.10	57.7	42.2	1.786
May ...	97.1	80.1	85	85	94.3	85.1	57	63¼	5.21	62.9	45.1	1.853
June...	88.	78.	86	85	90.5	84.2	57¼	60	5.25	69.4	48.1	1.830
July...	86.1	78.1	81	81	92.6	85.3	52¾	61¾	10.37	69.2	52.2	2.516
August.	86.2	79.3	84	84	89.9	83.1	57	60¼	11.77	70.1	52.9	1.453
Sept...	86.	78.	80	79	89.7	83.3	54¼	60¾	2.40	65.6	50.1	2.193
October	89.2	76.1	85	84	87.8	82.4	50¼	62	7.41	55.7	42.1	2.073
Nov....	78.	65.2	85	84	84.3	80.1	50¼	61¼	10.86	47.5	38.3	2.400
Dec....	75.	59.	81	80	80.2	76.	46¼	60	3.87	42.2	35.4	2.426
Annual Means.	85.3	73.4	82.4	81.5	87.9	80.8	52¾	61	63.88	56.1	42.5	

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Vegetation partakes of the general features of a country, so varied in aspect as that just now described, and it is so extensive, beautiful, indeed magnificent, as to baffle attempts at a brief delineation. The sea coast border of our Indian territories, as in other parts of the tropical world, is covered with the graceful and almost indispensable cocoa palm, which fortunately for man, grows to luxuriance in sandy and barren spots, where scarcely any other valuable plant would thrive. The forest trees of India

are not to be surpassed in any country, for superbness and number; their diversity and worth is as yet but little known in England, and they cover a great part of the country, from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya. Among them are oak, teak, pine, fir, walnut, jack, chesnut, cedar, ebony, sissoo, hornbeam, saul, yew, poon, mango, jarrool, &c. On the Kumaon range, the pine and arbor vitæ trees are not unfrequently seen with trunks of 25 feet in circumference, and 120 feet high, without a branch! The chief rice country of India is Bengal, which produces a surplus of this staple of life; but there are smaller quantities of rice cultivated in other parts (particularly in the western provinces) which are far superior in quality to that of Bengal. The Madras territories do not produce sufficient rice for home consumption, a great extent of waste land is now, however, being brought into cultivation, and the inferior sorts of grain are giving place to rice. The wheat grown in the northern and western provinces is of excellent quality, and a trade is now springing up between Liverpool and Calcutta, in the exportation of flour from the latter place, which is used and preferred in England for various manufactures.* The wheat of Bareilly is particularly fine, and the bread made therefrom, equal, if not superior to any met with in England. The seed was originally introduced (it is said), by Mr. Hawkins, and it is now generally cultivated. Wheat, the produce of the midland district of Kumaon, sells at Almora, at the rate of one rupee the 25 seirs, or *2s. for fifty pounds weight.* The barley of the N.W. provinces is also good, and the Hindoos of the Himalaya range distil from it a spirit, not much inferior to Irish potheen.

The cultivation of potatoes (not the sweet potatoe found in almost every tropical country) is proceeding with unexampled rapidity; they are much liked by the natives, even small and watery, as was their produce in Bengal until of late, when more care was adopted in the use of fresh European

* The quantity of wheat and wheat flour exported from India to England, in 1832, was 9,853 quarters.

seed; and at no distant period, this wonderful root bids fair to effect a singular revolution in the cultivation of the soil of Hindostan.

In the more Eastern and Southern provinces, the fruits are principally tropical; but in the N.W. provinces apples, pears, grapes, walnuts, strawberries, raspberries, and other fruits of temperate climates, are now being reared in abundance (the grapes of Malwa have long been celebrated); since the formation of agricultural societies at Calcutta, Bombay, Agra, &c. a marked improvement has taken place among the culinary vegetables; and turnips, parsnips, onions, carrots, peas, beans, brocoli, spinage, radishes, cabbage of every variety, cauliflowers, artichokes, cucumbers, &c., now crowd the bazars during their respective seasons: a spirit of emulation has also grown up among the native gardeners, which promises much improvement. A witness before Parliament, in 1832, thus speaks of the desire of the native to improve and extend cultivation, when encouraged by the natural and wholesome stimulus of individual profit:—

'You have only to insure a profit to the cultivator, whatever may be the crop, and the cultivation will be undertaken; for instance, that of the potatoe, in which, extraordinary as it may appear, the first experiments by the Europeans failed, but those by the natives were successful. The cultivation of the potatoe is now in the district of Furrackabad, carried to an extent that is scarcely to be believed. I may state as an example in proof, that the fine class of cultivators alluded to, grow on the same land a crop of indigo, which they cut early in the rains, and then prepare the lands for potatoes, and that the two crops will give a return of about 87 rupees per common begah of the country.* I think the men I now allude to would do anything possible in respect to cultivation. They

* A begah is about one-third of an acre, so that taking three times 87 rupees at 2*s.* the rupee, it would be a return of produce from one acre of ground to the amount of £26. This simple fact shews how British India would prosper if encouragement were given to its agricultural products.

will give any price for the manure from the stable: it is with the greatest difficulty that people in the town keep manure from them.'

On the Neilgheries, European plants and flowers, viz.—the red and white honeysuckle, white and red jasmin, myrtle, violet, balsam, marygold, geranium, and daisy are in fine perfection; as are also red and white raspberries, strawberries, hill-gooseberries, and currants, &c. The indigenous fruits of the Kumaon country are pears, gooseberries, currants (red and white), raspberries, and strawberries, none of which receive culture; on the Kossya, or Cossya Hills, in the neighbourhood of Sylhet, apples, pears, plums, straw, rasp, and blackberries abound; and the ever verdant sod is carpeted with daisies—the whole country presenting the appearance of an undulating park of extremely beautiful scenery. In Kumaon, the apple, pear, apricot, cherry, walnut, pomegranate, mulberry, peach, mango, guava, orange, lemon, citron, plantain, vine, strawberry (tree and herb), rasp, black, barberry, currants, gooseberries, &c. &c., all arrive at perfection, as also all European vegetables and flowers.

The sugar cane grows luxuriantly in most parts, but the manufacture of sugar is principally confined to Bengal and Benares: the grain of the latter sugar is large, bright, and sparkling, like the Mauritius sugar: that of Bengal has a whitish, sandy appearance, and a delicate, rather sickly, flavour, in consequence of the repeated fermentations which it undergoes in the tedious process of native manufacture; it is, however, preferred by the French confectioners in Europe, by reason of its possessing but little acidity.

The coffee of the Southern parts of the peninsula (lower Bengal is perhaps unsuited for it*) is excellent, and it might

* Coffee thrives best in a mild and moist temperature, in black, deep, arable ground, which retains the humidity well, and in the vicinity of forests and rivulets, rather shaded from the too intense heat of the sun. Cold and hard argillaceous earths, and also the sandy clay that lies on a bed of marl, does not suit the coffee plant, which requires a light and nourishing soil, free light and air, without too much exposure to the sun.

be sent in the greatest abundance to England, but for the extra duties levied on it for the support of the West India interest; even the tobacco of Hindostan which grows every where luxuriantly, and in many places has an exquisite aroma, is shut out from the home market by prohibitory duties. Opium forms one of the most valuable productions of Bengal, Behar and Malwa, and its yearly extending consumption in China (*vide Chapter on Commerce*), render it as valuable in a financial as in a mercantile or agricultural point of view.

Indigo is only cultivated for manufacture to any extent in Bengal, Behar, and the N.W. provinces, viz. Oude, Allahabad, Agra, &c.* The Bengal is the finest, probably not owing to any superior skill in the manufacture (for Europeans are employed in the upper as well as in the lower provinces), but to the superior richness, and perhaps saline quality of the soil in which the plant delights most to vegetate.

The tobacco lands of Guzerat, are stated by English witnesses to be 'the cleanest and best farmed lands they ever saw.' Some sorts cultivated have a fine aroma.

Cotton, whether of the creeper, perennnial or forest tree, (Bombax Ceiba) every where abounds, but sufficient care has not been bestowed on the growth, so as to render it a triennial instead of an annual, or in the picking and cleaning of it for exportation, although the natives sedulously attend to the same when preparing it for their own manufacture. E. I. cotton receives a brighter dye and retains it longer than American cotton; the Swiss and German cottons (so

* The different parts of the country in which the plant is cultivated may be seen by the following return of the indigo brought into Calcutta for the season of 1833:—From Furruckabad and Western Provinces, maunds, 3,748; Allahabad, Mirzapore, and Benares, 2,281; Juanpore, 463; Ghazeepore, 1,875; Chupra and Tirhoot, 15,264; Patna, Buxar, and Dinapoor, 3,024; Purneah, 3,741; Monghyr and Boglipoor, 3,181; Malda, 1,919; Rajishye, Nattore, Dinajipore, 3,930; Rungpore, 616; Mymensing, 296; Dacca and Jelapore, 1,695; Jessore and Furridpore, 20,449; Moorshedabad, 598; Nuddea and Kishnagur, 16,426; Burdwan, Bancoorah, and Burbhom, 4,788; Hooghly, and 24 Pergunnahs, 3,348; Balasore, Midnapore and Cuttack, 156. Total, 93,180 maunds.

superior to the Lancashire cloths) are made from E. I. cotton chiefly. The Dacca cotton is unequalled,* and the 'sea island cotton' from Saugur island at the mouth of the Hooghly, promises to be a valuable article of export.

The E. I. Company's Government have of late years made several attempts for the extensive introduction of the cotton plant into Guzerat, which seems well adapted for its culture. A farm has been established by the Company at the town of Broach, and the benefits resulting from improved cultivation, and greater care in the gathering and cleaning of the cotton demonstrated to the people.

Roses are cultivated to an immense extent at Ghazeepore and other places, for the purpose of manufacturing rose-water, (a sovereign remedy for ills with the natives) and otto or attar of roses, which requires 200,000 roses to produce the weight of a single rupee in attar.

Mr. Forbes Royle in the interesting and valuable Botanical Indian work which he is now preparing justly observes,—In the peninsula of India and in the neighbouring island of Ceylon, we have a climate capable of producing cinnamon, cassia, pepper, and cardamoms. The *coffee* grown on the Malabar coast is of so superior a quality as to be taken to

* The mode of manufacturing very fine Dacca muslins is thus minutely described by Mr. Walters. 'The division of labour was carried to a great extent in the manufacture of fine muslins. In spinning the very fine thread, more especially, a great degree of skill was attained. It was spun with the fingers on a *tukwah*, or fine steel spindle, by young women, who could only work during the early part of the morning, while the dew was on the ground; for such was the extreme tenuity of the fibre, that it would not bear manipulation after the sun had risen. One ruttee of cotton could thus be spun into a thread 80 cubits long, which was sold by the spinners at one rupee eight annas per sicca weight. The *ruffooghurs*, or darners, were also particularly skilful. They could remove an entire thread from a piece of muslin, and replace it by one of a finer texture. The cotton used for the finest thread was grown in the immediate neighbourhood of Dacca; more especially about Sunergong. Its fibre is too short, however, to admit of its being worked up by any except that most wonderful of all machines—the human hand. The art of making the very fine muslin fabrics is now lost,—and pity it is that it should be so.'

Arabia and re-exported as Mocha coffee. The Tinnivelly *senna* brings the highest price in the London market, and there is little doubt that many other valuable products of tropical countries may be acclimated, particularly as several are already in a flourishing condition in the Botanic Garden at Calcutta, such as the cocoa and nutmeg, as well as the camphor, pimento, cajeput, and cashew nut trees. In the Neilgheries a favourite site might, without doubt, be found for the *Cinchona* (Peruvian bark) as well as for the different kinds of *Ipecacuanha*, and as the potatoe has been introduced into almost every part of India, equal success and considerable benefit would probably result from introducing the several kinds of *arracacha*, so much prized for their roots as food by the natives of South America.

Along the coast of the Bay of Bengal the cocoa and areca nut palms flourish and abound, and the continent every where produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and opium. The first hardly of any note as an Indian product 30 years ago, is now imported in the largest quantities into England; the cotton is indigenous to India, many provinces seem peculiarly adapted for its culture, particularly Malwa and those to the N.W. The tobacco brought home by Dr. Wallich from Martaban, was pronounced by competent judges to be equal to the best from America: Patna opium is preferred in China, and that of Malwa bids fair to rival Turkey opium in the European market. *The sugar cane is cultivated in every part of India*, but very inferior sugar has hitherto been produced: lately, however, a manufactory has been established near Calna, (Burdwan) a new mine opened in the Burdwan coal formation, and very superior specimens of sugar sent home. Here the occurrence of sugar at the surface of the soil, and coal only a few feet below it, in a country where labour is so cheap, ought to be attended with decidedly favourable results. If from these we turn our attention to other products we shall still see that there are great capabilities every where, we should at least expect them, for though India is generally looked upon as a rice country, *wheat* is imported into and sold at a profit

in England, from the northern provinces, and *flour* for making starch, is now one of the annual exports from Calcutta. Of dyes, medicinal drugs, resins, and gums, and oils,* there are great varieties, and more might be successfully introduced. Timber of every kind is every where abundant, the coasts producing teak, ebony, and many others; the interior saul, sissoo, bamboos, and rattans, while a great variety of plants yield excellent materials for cordage. The northern and hill provinces grow at one season European grains, and at another those which are peculiar to the tropics, and many perennials of both these climates succeed equally well in the N.

* A recent number of the Asiatic Journal contains the following notice of a new vegetable oil, which has appeared in the Calcutta market, and which promises to prove a valuable article of trade:—

'This oil is in general use among the natives for mixing with colours, and is chiefly imported from Chittagong; but it would appear, on Major Burney's authority, to be still more abundantly produced in the Tavoy district, and at much less cost; the bazaar price in Calcutta averaging about nine or ten rupees per maud (82 lbs.); whereas, at Tavoy, it may be procured at about one-fourth that price. Both in India and in England it has been found to be a good substitute for linseed oil for outside work, especially in light colours, being worth for this purpose about £12 to £15 per ton. Mr. Dowie, a currier of Edinburgh, read a paper before the Edinburgh Society of Arts, on the mode of applying this vegetable oil alone, or mixed with tallow, to the preparation of leather for shoes, and he considers it as preferable to fish oil. This application is quite new; and at Mr. Swinton's suggestions, some similar trials have since been made in Calcutta, by Mackenzie and Macfarlan, with success. The leather absorbs a great deal of the oil, and the specimens presented to the Society appear to be very soft and tough.

'Major Burney describes the tree whence the *gargan* oil is extracted as forming large forests in Tavoy, growing to a great height and size; its native name is *kaniyen*. The flag-staff at Moulmein, 92 feet high, is formed of a single kaniyen tree. Mr. Maingy says, that the oil is much improved by boiling, which gives it drying properties; he has often used it for boots, and has found it excellent in preparing tarpauling. The inhabitants of Tavoy and Mergui do not burn earth oil like other Burmese, but torches made of this wood-oil and touch-wood. The imports into Calcutta for the last three years were as follow:—In 1829-30, Br. mds. 759, average price, 7 8. 1830-31, 914, 6 4. 1831-32, 1,708, 7 2.'

provinces. In the hill provinces the forests are formed of oaks and pines;* the hill-men make their strongest ropes for crossing rivers with *hemp* which every where abounds, and is of the finest quality. Opium, rhubarb, and turpentine, form articles of commerce as well as musk, Thibet wool, and borax, from the other kingdoms of Nature. Somewhere in the vallies at the foot of these hills, or at moderate elevations, the more generally useful productions of European countries might be successfully introduced, as the *olive* and *hop*, the latter would be particularly beneficial, as a brewery has been established in the hills, where the climate is excellent. Here also there is considerable prospect of success in the cultivation of the *tea plant*.'

'In the cold seasons,' Mr. Royle continues, 'there are cultivated (about Saharunpore) of *gramina*, wheat, barley, oats, and millet; of the *leguminæ*, peas, beans, vetch, tares, chick, and pigeon-peas; of *cruciferæ*, a species of *sinapis* (mustard) and allied genera cultivated for oil seeds, and of the *umbeliferæ*, the carrot, coriander, cummin, a species of *ptychotis* and *fœnnicullium pannorium*, as well as of other tribes, tobacco, flax, saf-flower, and succory. Almost all the esculent vegetables of Europe succeed remarkably well in the cold season in India. In the RAINY SEASON, a totally different set of plants engage the agriculturist's attention, as rice, cotton, indigo, maize: *holcus sorghum*, species of *panicum*, *paspalum*, and *elusinæ*, of *leguminæ*, species of *phaseolus* and *dolichos*. Many of the *cucurbitaceæ* as well as *sepanum* and the species of *solanum* for their esculent fruit.' In another place this scientific Botanist observes, 'as we have seen with perennials of other kinds so is it with those yielding fruit of an edible nature; many, both of tropical and temperate climes succeed, nearly equally well in the northern parts of India; so that taking Saharunpoor garden (lat. 30. N. long. 77.32. elevation

* The vegetation of the Kumaon ridge of the Himalayan Mountains is of course very different from that of the plains of Hindostan; the agricultural products are—buck-wheat, barley and wheat, and a species of amaran-

above the sea 1,000 feet, and 1,000 miles N.W. of Calcutta) as an example, we have collected in one place and naturalized in the *open air* the various fruit trees of very different countries, as of India and China, Caubul, Europe, and America. Of those belonging to hot countries we have the plantain, custard apple, shaddock, orange, lemon, guava, mango, tamarind, and others, which are common to every part of India. Of Chinese fruits, the *lechee, loquat, longaro, wampee,* flat peach, and digitated citron, are perfectly naturalized. Of fruit trees from more northern countries, as Caubul and Cashmere, and from the hills of Europe, there are the almond, peach, nectarine, and apricot, plum, pomegranate, grape-vine, apple, pear, quince, mulberry, fig, and walnut: of useful trees of cold countries which thrive in what is at some seasons so hot a climate; *pinès, oak, maple, dog-wood, service tree, holly, juniper, and box.* Of American trees, besides those first enumerated, the *logwood, mahogany, parkinsonia aculeata,* and *acer negundo,* may be instanced as perfectly naturalized.'

In order to demonstrate the variety of timber in our E. I. Possessions, and the advantages of lowering the duty on its importation into Great Britain, I subjoin a description of a few of the principal trees out of 500 specimens collected by the active and intelligent Dr. Wallich, of Calcutta, by the late Dr. Francis Hamilton (late Buchanan) and A. Maingy,

thus; the crop of the two latter being uncertain and in many seasons never reaching maturity: the only vegetables raised are turnips and leeks, but many useful herbs grow spontaneously, amongst which is rhubarb. The Bhot villages are all situated on the northern side of the great chain, and are in some degree subject to the influence of its snows and shade. By any unusual accumulation of snow on the summit, the inferior bed is forced down, and with it the influence of the line of perpetual congelation, if not the line itself, descends, and it sometimes requires the heat of more than one summer to throw back the snow to its former level. In the southern and least elevated part of the ghat, oaks and pines flourish; but with the increase of elevation a gradual change in the forests takes place, from these trees down to the birch, which is found on the very verge of perpetual snow: the bark of this tree is highly useful as a substitute for paper and other domestic purposes.

Esq. and submitted for examination by the Hon. E. I. Company to the London Society of Arts, who reported as follows:—[It should be premised that the annexed list includes *only some of the woods* of Nipaul, and the Ultra Gangetic country.]

Acacia mollis, from Nipal.

A large tree: wood yellowish white, shining, coarse, rather soft.—Sp.* 2 inch. diam. Fibres and rays of the same colour, the latter very distinct: tubes large.

Acacia fragrans, fr. Nipal.

A large tree.—Sp. 2 inch. diam. Wood glossy, coarse: a bad specimen.

Acacia. Joolchumahl, N.† fr. Nipal.

Tree very large: wood excellent for chests and boxes.

Acacia. Popeeah, B.‡ fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree: the wood used for posts, bows, and rollers for ginning cotton.

Acacia odoratissima. Jatikorai, fr. Gualpara.§

Trunk very lofty, but not straight; often 6 feet in girth: wood hard, and used in furniture.

Acacia marginata. Korui, fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth. Makes good planks.

Acer lævigatum. Suslendi, N. Cherouni, P.‖ fr. Nipal.

30 to 40 feet high: 3 to 4 inches in diameter; of slow growth; used for rafters, beams, and other building purposes.—Sp. 3·5 inches in diam. Wood varied brown and cream colour, with a wavy lustre.

Acer sterculiaceum, fr. Nipal.

A very large tree, 3 feet in diameter.—Sp. 3·5 inch. diam. Wood light: fibre pale cream colour, with considerable lustre: rays in distinct brown ribands: tubes large, giving a coarse appearance to the wood.

Acer oblongum, fr. Nipal.

A very large tree. Wood moderately hard and compact.—Sp. fibre cream brown, with considerable lustre: rays in narrow ribands of a flesh colour: tubes small.

Ahnaun, fr. Tavoy.

3 to 6 fathoms long; 12 to 15 inches diameter. Yields good crooked timber, the strongest and most durable of any in Tavoy; used for anchors to the largest boats.

Alnus nepalensis, fr. Nipal.

Wood as firm as English birch, and of a deeper colour; very hard, and difficult to cut; lustre considerable.—Sp. 5 inch. diam. 20 layers in 1·7 inch (but in another specimen 5 layers in 1·8 inch.) Heart pale brownish red: fibre glossy: rays reddish brown, very distinct. Bark fibrous, rather thick, composed of many thin laminæ.

Alstonia (*Echites*) *scholaris*. Chatiyan, fr. Gualpara.

A beautiful tree, often 3 cubits in girth, used for coarse furniture.

Alstonia antidysenterica (*Nerium antidys.*) Dudkhuri, fr. Gualpara.

A large tree, often 3 cubits in circumference. Is considered a powerful medicine. Beads are made of it, to be worn round the neck.

Anacardium latifolium. Bhela, fr. Gualpara.

Grows to a good size; used for making chests and couches.

* Sp. the individual specimen examined.

† N. Nowar, the language of the Hindu conquerors of Nipal. ‡ B. The Burmese language.

§ In Assam. ‖ Parbuttea, the language of the natives of Nipal.

Anacardium? Thubbamboo, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree, used in boat-building.

Andrachne trifoliata. Uriam, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth, used for coarse furniture.

Andromeda ovalifolia. Angaree, P.; Juggoochal, N.; fr. Nipal.

Grows 1 or 2 feet in diameter: wood soft and spongy, used for fuel. Sp. wood moderately hard, compact, reddish brown, with some lustre. Bark with layers of stringy fibres.

Andromeda formosa. Sheaboge, N. fr. Nipal.

A tree of considerable size. Sp. 4·5 inch. diam.: wood pale brown, fine-grained moderately hard: rays very distinct in the outer layers.

Andromeda cordata, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 4·5-inch. diam.: wood brown, nearly dull; rays distinct: bark flaky, not at all stringy.

Antidesma. Boro-helock, fr. Gualpara.

Grows in the mountains; 6 feet in girth; the wood used for furniture.

Aquilaria agallochum. Aggur and Langchi, fr. Gualpara.

Attains a great size in the low-lands of Assam, and on the lower hills of Gualpara; but in these situations the wood is white, and in no estimation. In the Garo mountains certain parts of the heart of the wood become of a dark brown colour, and are strongly impregnated with a highly scented oil. When in this state it is usually called Eagle-wood.

Aralia v. *Panax,* fr. Nipal.

Said to be excellent wood; used for boxes and other articles. Sp. 4·5 inch. diam; light-coloured, rather soft.

Artocarpus. Thounben or Thoun-pine, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree; used in boat-building. It produces a sort of caout-chouc, with which the Burmese pay their boats.

Artocarpus Chama. Kangtali chama, fr. Gualpara.

The glory of the forests of Gorakpur, where it attains a very great size: used for canoes, for which it is well fitted, being both very buoyant and durable in the water.

Bah-nah-thoa, fr. Tavoy.

Timber 4 to 6 fathoms long; 15 to 24 inches in diameter: used in boat and house-building.

Bambusa. Bamboo, fr. Pulo-Geun, in Martaban.

The largest and tallest sort known; the stem 100 feet high, and attaining at the base a diameter 11 inches, with sides 1 inch thick.

Bauhinia Tucra. Tukra, fr. Gualpara.

A close grained, soft, tough wood, of a yellow colour.

Bauhinia Bacuria. Bakuri, fr. Gualpara.

An open-grained, soft, tough wood; 3 cubits in girth: used for furniture.

Berberis pinnatifolia. Milkissee, N.; Jumne-munda, P.; fr. Nipal.

Rarely exceeding a foot in diameter. Sp. 3 inch. diam.; wood strong, close, compact, yellow.

Berberis asiatica. Matekisse, N.; Chitra, P.; fr. Nipal.

Wood small. Sp. rays rather large, distinct; layers 12 in 1·5 inch.: wood tough, compact, greenish yellow.

Betula leptostachya, fr. Nipal.

Wood not to be distinguished from English birch. Sp. 2·8 inch. diam.; 3 layers; rays in numerous, straight, narrow, parallel, ribands; bark thin, smooth, sported like common alder.

Betula cylindrostachya, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 4·5 inch. diam.; wood shaky, of no value; layers not distinct enough to be counted;

fibre white, glossy; rays dark nut-brown, in very distinct, narrow ribands; bark thick, tubercular.

Betula Bhojpattra, N. fr. Nipal.

Sp. 5·8 inch. diam.; about 20 layers; wood moderately hard and compact; cuticle used for writing on, and also for covering the inside of the tube of the hookah and kalioun.

Bignonia. Thathee, B. fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree.

Briedelia stipularis. Kohi, fr. Gualpara.

Grows to a large size; wood close, hard, tough; used for chests, stools, &c.

Briedelia? fr. Nipal.

Wood not very hard, but fine-grained, and fit for ornamental cabinet work. Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.; colour lighter than box; no tubes nor rays visible.

Butea frondosa. Polash, fr Gualpara.

Sometimes 6 feet in girth; wood open, soft, and tough, but not strong; used in coarse furniture.

Cæsalpinia Sappan. Sappan-wood.

A native both of the peninsula of India, of the Burmese country, and of the Malayan Islands. A large and valuable tree; the wood red; used in dying.

Calophyllum. Thurappe, B.; Choopee, N.; fr. Martaban.

A large tree, used for masts and spars, and for pestles for oil presses.

Callicarpa arborea. Khoja, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; used for mortars, pestles, and common furniture.

Calyptranthes. Saljam, fr. Gualpara.

Seldom more than 3 cubits in girth. A close, hard, tough wood, used for posts, beams, and planks.

Camellia Kissi. Kissi, fr. Nipal.

Wood close-grained; no sapwood. Sp. 1·5 inch. diam.; wood pale brown; bark very thin.

Capparis, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2 inch. diam.; wood white, moderately hard, dull.

Carapa. Taila-oon, B. fr. Tavoy.

Timber 13 to 15 cubits, 15 to 18 inch. diam.; used in house-building.

Careya. Kombo, fr. Gualpara.

About 3 cubits in girth; wood close, hard, tough, and strong. Stocks of matchlocks are made of it.

Carpinus viminea. Chukisse, N.; Konikath, B.; fr. Nipal.

Wood esteemed by carpenters. Sp. pale purplish, with little lustre, hard, rather heavy; tubes small.

Cassia Fistula. Sonalu, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; an open, hard, tough wood, used for ploughs.

Castanea tribuloides. Cotoor and Chisee; also Makoo Shingali, N. (Shingali, is the general name for oak and chestnut.) fr. Nipal.

Used for large mortars and pestles for grinding grain in; becomes brown by steeping in water. Wood hard and heavy. Sp. rays like English oak; that is, every 5th or 6th much larger than the others. Another specimen, said to be of the same species, wants the large rays.

Castanea. Nikari, fr. Gualpara.

Oak or chestnut; cup covered with strong prickles; leaves notched; 5 cubits in girth; timber close, hard, tough; used for furniture and canoes.

Cedrela hexandra. Toon-wood, fr. Nipal.

Sp. the wood has a great general resemblance to Laurus; the outer layers have white glossy fibres, with very distinct brown rays; the inner layers are brownish red, harder and more compact; bark with white fibres.

Cedrela Toona. Toon or Tungd; Poma; Jeea; fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; a close, hard, but rather brittle wood, of a brown red colour; very durable, and esteemed for furniture. It has an agreeable smell. The wood, under the name of Toon, is extensively used for chairs and other furniture.

Celastrus, fr. Nipal.

An enormous climber. Sp. trunk deeply channelled externally; wood light, reddish brown; tubes large and numerous; rays deep and very distinct, but of the same colour as the rest of the wood; bark, outer, orange yellow; inner, deep brown.

Cerasus. Puddom. Nipal cherry, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 3·5 inch. diam. 14 layers: rays reddish brown, distinct; wood rather soft with some lustre.

Cerbera Manghas. Kullooa, B. fr. Tavoy.

From the fruit (probably the kernels) an oil is drawn with which the Burmese anoint their hair. Wood not used.

Champa, white, fr. Nipal.

Sp. part of a plank: a free-working wood, soft and light like deal: fibre wavy white, and very glossy: rays shallow and slender: layers very distinct, 32 in 4·5 inches. Compare Michelia.

Choorosi, N. fr. Nipal.

A very fine sort of wood, said to come from the north.

Chrysophyllum acuminatum, Roxb. Pithogarkh, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; wood white, tough, used in furniture.

Chung, fr. Gualpara.

Perhaps a species of Chilmoria. It grows very large, and affords a close tough wood used in furniture.

Cinchona gratissima, Wall. Tunghusi, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

A native also of the mountains in Bengal, where it is called Usokuli: used in Nipal for posts and rafters. Sp. wood brown, light, coarse-grained: bark with many compressed coarse fibres.

Cordia Myxa? fr. Nipal.

A large tree.

Cornus oblonga, Wall. Easee, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

A tree of middle size. Sp. 3 inch. diam. Wood fine-grained rather hard; fibre white and shining: rays very numerous, reddish brown.

Corylus feroæ, Wall. fr. Nipal.

Grows at the top of Sheopore, one of the highest mountains in Nipal; flowers in September, and produces fruit in December: shell of the nut hard and thick. A tree 20 feet high, 2 feet in girth; wood light, compact.

Cou-moo, fr. Tavoy.

Timber 5 to 10 fathoms long; 20 to 30 inches in girth; used in boat and house-building; not much inferior to Hopæa.

Ceatægus arbutiflora. Rooes, N. fr Nipal.

A small tree, or rather shrub; wood exceedingly strong: used for walking sticks.

Croton oblongifolium, Roxb. Parokupi, fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; a close-grained, but rather brittle wood; used for coarse furniture.

Croton. Lalpatuja, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; a hard close-grained wood, used for small canoes.

Dalbergia Momsita, Ham. Momsita, fr. Gualpara.

Attains a considerable size: wood close, hard, and tough; used in coarse furniture.

Daphne cannabina. Loureir, fr. Nipal.

A shrub, from 6 to 8 feet high; grows on the most exposed parts of the snowy mountains of Nipal. Paper made of the bark is strong, tough, not liable to crack, nor to be eaten by the white ant or other insects.

Decadia spicata. Bongyera, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth. A close, hard, tough wood, used by carpenters.

Dillenia. Zimboon, B. fr. Tavoy.

Timber 3 to 5 fathoms long, 8 to 10 inches diameter. Wood used in house-building; it also affords small crooked timbers for boats.

Dillenia pilosa, Roxb. Daine-oksi, fr. Gualpara.

Trunk 6 feet in girth. Wood open, but hard and tough; used for canoes.

Dillenia speciosa. Chalita, fr Gualpara.

6 feet in girth. Wood close and hard, but rather brittle.

Dipterocarpus grandiflora, Wall. Ain or Aintha, B. fr. Martaban, on the banks of the Atran; also from Tavoy.

A stupendous tree: one of those which yield wood-oil and dammar.

Dubdubia. (See Rhus.) from Nipal.

Sp. 4·2 inch. diam.; layers 10; rays distinct; tubes few, rather large. Wood very white, light and soft. Bark thin.

Ehretia serrata, Roxb. Nalshima, N. fr. Nipal; also fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; gives planks from 12 to 18 inches wide; wood soft and open-grained, but rather tough; not durable; used for posts and other common purposes.

Elæagnus, fr. Nipal.

Wood similar to, but whiter than, common hawthorn. Sp. 4 inch. diam.; layers 27 in 1·7 inch: neither tubes nor rays visible in the cross section: bark thin.

Elæocarpus. Thaumagee, T. fr. Martaban.

Timber very large, used for masts and posts for houses.

Eriobotyria elliptica. Mihul, P. and N. fr. Nipal.

Wood cinnamon-brown, hard, compact, and reckoned good. Sp. 7 inch. diam.; rings indistinct, about 26 in 3·1 inches; tubes very small.

Euonymus tingens. Kusoori, N. fr. Nipal.

Wood brown, compact, hard, very fine-grained, dull. Sp. tubes not visible; rays small and indistinct: bark, outer, orange yellow; inner, brown with fine white fibres: the yellow bark is used for painting the forehead.

Eurya variabilis (probably the same as the preceding.) Chickouni, B. and N. fr. Nipal.

Grows large; wood compact, fine-grained, cinnamon-brown; good for turnery ware.

Eurya? fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.: tubes small; rays distinct, red brown; fibre pale brown, with moderate lustre: wood reddish brown, fine-grained, moderately hard.

Fagara floribunda, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2·2 inch. diam.: tubes many and large: wood coarse, and of remarkably open grain, but more compact near the axis; colour brownish yellow, nearly dull.

Fagræa fragrans, Roxb. Annah-beng, B. fr. Martaban.

Timber not large; wood yellowish, compact and beautiful, but very hard, and on this account not much used by the Burmese.

Ficus. Doodae-kath, N. P. fr. Nipal.

Used for water-courses, drains, and gutters. Sp. 4·5 inch. diam.; layers 63 in 2 inches: wood soft, free-working, closer than deal; lustre considerable, satiny.

Fraxinus floribunda. Lakkuree, N. fr. Nipal.

Sp. 17 layers in 2·1 inches; in colour, grain, and toughness, just like English ash.

Freziera ochnoides, fr. Nipal.

A middle-sized tree; wood pale brown, close-grained, and moderately hard Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.,; rays hardly distinguishable; resembles pear-tree.

Gardenia, fr. Nipal.

Sp. wood cream-brown, fine-grained, hard, compact; probably used for turnery ware.

Gmelina arborea. Gambhari, fr. Gualpara.

Wood light, but durable, does not warp, and is not readily attacked by insects; used for turnery ware of all kinds, and cylinders of a proper size are turned very thin for drums: other musical instruments are also made of it.

Gordonia integrifolia. Chillounea, P.; Goechassee, N.; fr. Nipal.

The bark contains white spiculæ that produce violent itching when rubbed on the skin in their recent state. The Burmese have a superstition, that one beam in a house should be made of this wood. Wood brown, nearly dull, moderately hard and compact.

Heritiera Fomes, Ham. (minor, Roxb.) Kunnazoo, B. fr. Tavoy, Soondree of Bengal.

A very large tree; wood exceedingly hard and durable; used for pestles for oil mills; shafts of gigs, and spokes and naves are made of it: an excellent fuel for burning bricks; grows to a much greater size on the Martaban coast than in Bengal.

Hibiscus macrophyllus, Roxb. fr. Tavoy.

A middle-sized tree, used for common building purposes, bark tough and stringy; is made into cordage.

Hopea odorata. Tengaun or Thaengong. Common on the Tenasserim and Martaban coasts.

Canoes are made of this tree, which grows to an enormous size: it also produces a valuable resin or dammar.

Ilex dipyrena, Wall. Karaput, P.; Munasi and Gulsima, N.; fr. Nipal.

Wood heavy, hard, fine-grained, and much like common holly, said to become black with age; used for various purposes of carpentry, Sp. 3 inch. diam.; tubes very small; rays distinct.

Jasminum chrysanthum, Roxb.

Sp. 1·8 inch. diam.; neither tubes nor rays visible; wood white, fine-grained, moderately hard; brittle, hard concretions in the bark.

Juglans pterococca, Roxb. from Nipal.

An exceeding large tree Sp. 3·5 inch. diam.; wood pale reddish brown, with considerable lustre, but rather coarse-grained.

Juniperus excelsa, Bieb? The Cedar of Himalaya.

Harder and less odorant than the West India cedar; an excellent light wood.

Kaantha, B. fr. Tavoy.

3 to 5 fathoms long, 12 to 15 inches in diameter. Yields a small but valuable timber for oars and paddles.

Kalajiya, fr. Gualpara.

Common over all India; remarkable for the facility with which it grows from cuttings, and from truncheons; yields much gum; wood of no use,

Kaunzo-Kurro, B. fr. Tavoy.

5 to 7 fathoms long, 15 to 20 inches diameter; used in boat-building: see also Meliacea.

Keahnaun, B. fr. Tavoy.

15 to 20 feet long, 15 to 20 inch. diam.; strong crooked timber, used for musket-stocks: see also Xylocarpus.

Kuddoot-Alain, B. fr. Tavoy.

Grows to a great size; used by house and boat-builders.

Kuddoot-nee, B. fr. Tavoy.

6 to 8 fath. long, 15 to 20 inch. diam.; an inferior wood, used in boat-building.

Kujulsee P. and N. fr. Nipal.

Trunk 2 feet in diam.; wood strong and durable; used for door-posts.

Lagerstroemia. Kuenmounce or Peema, B. fr. Tavoy.

Used in house-building, and for oars.

Lagerstroemia parviflora, Roxb. Sida, fr. Gualpara.

A large tree, 6 feet in girth, and very common; wood close, hard, and tough, forming excellent timber.

Lagerstroemia Reginæ. Jarul, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth, used in boat-building; but the wood is soft, and deficient in toughness. It is extensively used in Bengal under the name of Jarul.

Laurus.* Lumpatch, P.; Chasepoo, N.; fr. Nipal.

4 to 6 feet in diam.; wood soft and pale when young, hard and pale red when older; used in carpenter's work, and for beams. Sp. 27 layers in 1·8 inches; lustre considerable; rays mostly distinct.

Laurus. Kullowa or Kurrowa, B. fr. Tavoy.

Produces the sassafras-bark and camphor-wood of Martaban.

Laurus. Maythen, B. fr. Tavoy.

5 to 6 fath. long, 18 to 26 inch. diam.; a very large tree; wood used for furniture, in house carpentry, and for planks and upper decks for proas.

Laurus. Phetpetta, N.; Balukshee, P.; fr. Nipal.

Wood red-brown, of a fine grain, used for chests, &c. Sp. fibre and rays as other Lauri; tubes filled with a dark red-brown substance.

Laurus (or Tetranthera) very like T. pulcherrima. Bulooksee, N.; Sengoulee and Tijpaut, P.; fr. Nipal.

Wood excellent, used for spinning wheels. Sp. 3·5 inch. diam.; fibre, tubes, and rays, as other Lauri.

Laurus, (Tethranthera bifaria, Wall.) Juttrunga, N.; Pahelakath, P.; fr. Nipal.

Large and very useful timber; wood soft, rather spongy. Sp. 6 inch. diam.; rotten at heart; fibre pale yellow, glossy; rays distinct, dirty brown.

Laurus salicifolia. Horisongher, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; wood has a strong smell of camphor; used for coarse articles of furniture.

Ligustrum napalense. Billae or Bancha, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

Timber about a foot or more in diameter; used for building purposes. Sp. 4 inch. diam.; layers about 10 in an inch: wood heavy, hard, compact, tough, and very fine-grained; for the purposes of the engraver will probably be found nearly as good as Mediterranean box; bark with coarse white fibres.

Limonia. Kailkat, P.; Hakoolnal, N.; fr. Nipal.

Timber large for the genus; wood white, soft, but close, strong, and tough; fit for fine turnery ware. Sp. 7 inch. diam.; neither rays nor tubes visible; inner bark very fibrous.

Magnolia insignis, Wall. fr. Nipal.

Sp. 3 inch. diam.; 12 layers; wood rather soft, moderately fine-grained, and with some lustre.

* There are 24 specimens of Laurus.

Mainaban, B. fr. Tavoy.

Resembles lance-wood; used for beams, posts, and rafters; also for lances, bows, sword-handles, &c.

May-lobek, fr. Tavoy.

Imported in long planks, and used in preference to teak for the bottom planks of ships.

Meliacea. Tokor, fr. Gualpara.

A large tree, used for planks, canoes, and coarse furniture.

Menispermum laurifolium, Roxb. fr. Nipal.

A large tree, very remarkable for the grain and irregular layers of its wood.

Michelia Kisopa, De Cand. Champ or Chaump, P.; Chobsse, N.

The wood much used for light works. Sp. piece of a plank, 30 layers in 3·75 inches; another sp. 2·5 inch diam. 12 layers in 1·1 inch: similar to white Champa, No. 87. but the colour is more yellow, and the rays less distinct.

Minusops. Thubbae, B. fr. Tavoy.

Wood used for masts and spars; affords also good crooked wood.

Morus lævigata, Wall. fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. 1·5 inch, diam.; wood coarse brownish yellow, with considerable lustre.

Murraya, Maikay, B. fr. Tavoy.

4 to 5 feet long, 3 to 6 inch. diam.; used for handles of daggers and of other weapons. A strong, tough wood, in grain like box.

Myrica sapida, Wall.; Kaephul, P.; Kobusi, N.: fr. Nipal.

Grain like birch, but the colour darker. Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.; fibre brownish white, nearly dull; rays very distinct, dark brown in the outer layers; the interior layers harder, heavier, and more compact. The fruit is eaten.

Myristica. Jheruya, fr. Gualpara.

A sort of nutmeg, but neither the nut nor mace have any aroma: timber 5 cubits in girth, used for furniture.

Myrsine semiserrata. Bireesee and Kalikaut, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

Wood excellent. Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.; rays large, deep flesh-colour, and very ornamental.

Nauclea Cadamba, Roxb. Kodom, fr. Gualpara.

A noble tree, 6 feet in girth; wood yellow, used for coarse furniture.

Nerium tomentosum. Adhkuri, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; used for furniture.

Nikari, fr. Gualpara.

An oak or chesnut; cup covered with large prickles; leaves notched; 5 cubits in girth; used for canoes and furniture.

Olea glandulifera, fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. 5 inch. diam.; rays very thin and indistinct; wood pale brown, very hard, heavy, and compact.

Oleina, fr. Nipal.

A middle-sized tree. Sp. 3 inch. diam.; wood pale brown, with considerable lustre, handsome grain, and very hard.

Osyris napalensis. Ihoori, P. and N. fr. Nipal.

A large timber tree, the fruit of which is eaten, and the wood is in estimation. Sp. 1·5 inch. diam.; tubes very small; wood red-brown, rather hard, compact, and very fine-grained.

Panax. Lubtesee, N. fr. Nipal.

Sp. about 2·5 inch. diam.; wood soft, light, spongy, with high lustre; bark with short thick tubercles or spines, broad at the base.

Panax pendulus, fr. Nipal.

A middle-sized tree; wood pale reddish brown, light, moderately hard; rays distinct, giving a handsome grain.

Photinia integrifolia, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2·1 inch. diam.; works freely; somewhat coarse; colour reddish brown, with scarcely any lustre.

Phyllanthus Emblica, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 3 inch. diam.; layers about 8, very indistinct; rays distinct: a handsome nut-brown, glossy, hard wood.

Pienmahne, fr. Tavoy.

4 to 6 fathoms long; 18 to 20 inches diameter; affords the best and strongest crooked timber, and is very durable; used also in house-building.

Pinus excelsa, fr. Nipal.

Wood remarkable compact. Sp. 3 inch. diam.; 6 layers.

Pinus longifolia, fr. Nipal.

Excellent timber, like Memel deal.

Pinus Brunoniana, fr. Nipal.

Wood soft, and of no value.

Pinus Webbiana, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 7 inch. diam.; exterior layers soft, and of no value; interior ones harder and fine-grained.

Pinus Dammara? fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree, used for beams and rafters.

Pinus Deodura. Himalaya Cedar, fr. Nipal.

Wood very fragrant.

Plumeria alba, fr. Bot. G.

A West Indian tree.

Polypodium giganteum. A tree-fern, fr. Nipal.

A stem 45 feet in height, and proportionately thick, was presented by the Directors of the East India Company to the British Museum.

Pongamia atropurpurea, Wall. Lazun, B.; Choo-kha, T.: fr. Martaban.

A noble forest tree; native of environs of Amherst and Moulmein, on the Martaban coast: the wood used in boat and house-building; flower of a dark purple colour.

Premna hirsina. Chikagambhari, fr. Gualpara.

Is often found 6 feet in girth; the wood has a strong odour like the musk rat; it is used for making musical instruments, and for other uses. It is said that no insect will eat it.

Prunus adenophylla. Aroo, P.; fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.; fibre white and glossy; rays brown, distinct; tubes rather small; wood light and soft, but harder and reddish brown near the centre.

Psychotria rotata, fr. Nipal.

S. 3·5 inch. diam.; axis very eccentric; wood pale reddish brown, dull, fine grained, moderately hard.

Pterocarpus? Puddow, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree; wood used for furniture and musical instruments.

Pyrus indica, Roxb? Mehul, P.; Passi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2·5 inch. diam. wood brown, compact, moderately hard, very fine-grained; tubes exceedingly small; bark very thin, composed of 9 brown layers alternating with as many white ones; the thickness of the whole scarcely one-eighth of an inch.

Quercus spicata, fr. Nipal.

A very large tree; wood very like English oak; every 7th or 8th ray much thicker than the others.

Quercus semecarpifolia. Ghese and Cusroo, N. fr. Nipal.

A very large tree, from 14 to 18 feet in girth, at 5 feet above the ground; clear trunk from 80 to 100 feet. Sp. 3·5 layers in 2·4 inches; wood light pale brown; rays small, uniform.

Quercus lamellosa. Shulshee and Phrarat, N. fr. Nipal.

Wood very hard, straight-grained, and good, of a pale brown colour; rays uniform.

Quercus. Bunaroo, P.; Gomulsee, N. fr. Nipal.

Wood soft, works as easily as deal; fibre grey, with considerable lustre; rays uniform, reddish brown, very distinct; layers indistinct; heart reddish brown.

Quercus lanata, fr. Natal.

A very large tree. Sp. bad.

Quercus. Tima, fr. Gualpara.

Leaves entire; acorns covered entirely by an unarmed cup formed of concentric rings; timber not more than 3 cubits in girth; used for coarse furniture.

Quercus Amherstiana, Wall. Tirbbae, B.; Ryakle, T.; fr. Martaban.

Grows to a large size; wood used in boat-building, &c.

Rhamnea. Bungla, fr. Gulapara.

5 cubits in girth; used for chests, stools, and other coarse furniture.

Rhamnus virgatus, fr. Nipal.

Wood very hard and heavy; the heart a bright-red brown, not unlike English yew. Sp. 3·5 inch. diam.; tubes very irregular; rays scarcely visible.

Rhododendron arboreum. Ghorans or Ghonas, P.; Tuggoo, N.; fr. Nipal.

The wood resembles plum-tree; used for gun-stocks.

Rhus Bukkiamela, Roxb. Subuchunsee, N.; Bukkiamela, P.; fr. Nipal.

Timber good and large. Sp. 3·5 inch. diam.; greyish white with considerable lustre, soft, light.

Rhus juglandifolium, Wall. Chose, N.; Bhalaeo, P.; fr. Nipal

Very like the Japan varnish tree. Sp. 3·5 inch. diam.; heart red-brown, the tubes being filled with a substance of this colour; wood soft, bears a considerable resemblance to the Lauri, with indistinct rays.

Rondeletia coriacea, Wall. Kongeea, P.; Julsi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Wood close-grained, and becomes of the colour of mahogany some time after it has been cut; layers very indistinct: used for rafters, tools, &c. A red dye is also prepared from it.

Rottlera, (perhaps tinctoria) fr. Nipal.

Wood pale brown, compact, hard, fine-grained; bark very thin.

Salix babylonica. Tissee and Bhosee, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

Attains an enormous size.

Sapotea? Palaepean, B. fr. Tavoy.

Leaves most beautifully silky and gold colour beneath. A very large tree: wood used in building.

Schinus Niara, Ham. Niyor, fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; a hard, close-grained rather brittle wood, with a resinous scent; preferred by the natives to almost any other for furniture.

Shorea robusta. Saul or Sâl.

This is the staple timber of Hindostan for building purposes: vast quantities of dammar, or resin, are extracted from it, as well as from Dipterocarpus and Hopea, all of which belong to one family, the Dipterocarpeæ.

Sterculia? Kuneenee, B. fr. Tavoy.

Attains an enormous size. An oil is extracted from the wood by incision, which is used for torches.

Syndesmis Tavoyana, Wall. Kee-tha, B.; red-wood; fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree; used in building, and for boxes, &c.

Symplocos floribunda, fr. Nipal.

A large tree, wood fine-grained.

Symplocos? Kalikath, P.; Paunlah, N.; fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. wood white, compact of a very fine-grain, and as soft as deal; no tubes visible; rays indistinct; bark as thin as paper.

Taxus virgata, Wall. Dheyri, P.; Lolsi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Grows to a large size: the green branches are used to adorn houses during certain festivals; timber strong and good. Sp. 0·5 inch. diam. Axis very eccentric, 5 | 1·5; all the layers cannot be counted. On the widest side of the axis are 27 layers in 0.85 inch. beginning from the axis; near the outside are 18 layers in 0·9 inch.; wood softer, of paler colour, and less lustre than English yew.

Tectona grandis. Teak, fr. Martaban.

Several specimens of various qualities.

Terminalia Catappa, fr. Bot. G.

A noble and most ornamental tree: wood very good.

Tetradium? fr. Nipal.

A very large tree.

Tetranthera caduca. Pangch-Petiya, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; used for chests and common carpentry.

Thau-baun-thau-lay, fr. Tavoy.

6 to 12 fathoms long, 13 to 20 inches diam. Wood very pliant; little inferior to Hopea, but does not saw so kindly.

Thymboo, B. Thau-baun-po, fr. Tavoy.

5 to 10 fath. long. 15 to 20 inches diam. Good strong durable light wood; used in boat-building; does not saw kindly.

Town-pine, fr. Tavoy.

7 to 8 fathoms long, 18 to 30 inches thick; used in boat-building; reckoned little inferior to Hopæa.

Turpinia pomifera. (Dalrymplea,) Phurasee and Signa, N. fr. Nipal.

A large tree; wood of a dull grey colour, light, soft, compact, free working, splits easily; not applied to any particular use, Sp. 3·2 inch. diam.; rays indistinct; tubes very small; bark thin, and the inner layers almost black.

Ulderoo, fr. Bombay.

Very little liable to split, and therefore used for fuses for bomb-shells.

Uvaria. Thubboo, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree used in boat building.

Vernonia. Magor, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; used for coarse furniture. The only one of the numerous tribe of corymbiferous plants that grows to be a timber tree.

Vitex acuminata. Angchhui, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth. A very close, hard, brittle wood; used for mortars of oil mills, feet of bedsteads, &c.

Vitex Leucoxylon: Bhodiya, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; used in making ploughs; will grow on land that is inundated for weeks together.

Vitis or *Cissus*, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 4·5 inch. diam.; wood spongy and very coarse-grained; fibre very small in proportion

to the tubes, which are many and large; rays very distinct, of a reddish brown colour, forming a handsome waved figure; bark stringy.

Wrightia tinctoria. (Indigo tree.)

The leaves yield indigo. The wood is 'beautifully white, close-grained, coming nearer to ivory than any other known to me.'—*Roxb.*

Xanthophyllum. Saphew, B.; Choo-muna, T.; fr. Martaban.

Very large wood used for posts and rafters.

Xanthoxylon alatum. Timbhus, P. and N. fr. Nipal.

Xylocarpus. Keannan, B. fr. Tavoy.

Timber from 10 to 20 feet long; very durable; used for furniture, and in house-building.

Ziziphus incurva. Harobaer, P.; Kadabusi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Wood in considerable estimation. Sp. 3·5 inch. diam.; fibre brownish white, with little lustre; rays in the outer layers distinct, but of the same colour as the fibre; bark coarsely fibrous.

These statements demonstrate in some degree the varied and useful staples which Hindostan presents:

Indeed the British possessions in India are rich to overflowing with every product of vegetable life, which an all-wise and ever beneficent Providence could bestow to gratify the sight,—and contribute to the comfort and happiness of his creatures; that they are not used to the extent they ought, is the fault of perverse man, who would seem to take delight in thwarting the benignity of the unseen Being whose most bounteous blessings are too often ungratefully spurned or mischievously used.

The Zoology of India is no less extensive than the vegetable kingdom; 'every beast of the earth after his kind, and cattle after their kind, and every thing that creepeth on the earth after its kind,' teems in abundance on the Asiatic plains: and the hunter and the hawker, the fowler and the fisher, as well as the farmer and shepherd, all find ample scope for their respective pursuits. The gigantic and gregarious elephant usurps the dominion of the forests, while the lonely and ferocious tiger infests every jungle, from the *embouchures* of the sacred Ganges* to the Himalaya moun-

* Two reverend Gentlemen (Missionaries) while recently passing through the Sunderbuns or Delta of the Ganges, witnessed a fearful contest between a tiger and an alligator, which they thus describe:—'About an 100 yards from us, an alligator came up out of the river to enjoy his noontide sleep in the rays of the sun. After remaining there half an hour, and being apparently in a sound sleep, we observed an immense tiger emerging from the

tains. During the last four years, about 1,000 children have been devoured by wolves in the vicinity of the city of Agra. The natives can with great difficulty be induced to kill a wolf in Upper India, from a belief that if its blood be spilt, the common people would desert the village, which would be haunted by the ghosts of the children slain: when a wolf is

jungle, and bending his steps toward the place where the alligator lay. In size the tiger exceeded the largest which we had ever seen; and his broad round face, when turned towards us, striped with white, his fierce eyes, together with the amazing apparent strength of his limbs, made the stoutest heart on board to tremble at the thought of encountering such a dreadful foe, with the most cautious pace imaginable, the tiger approached the alligator: his raised foot remained some seconds before he replaced it on the ground; and so he proceeded till he came within the power of his leap, when, exerting all his strength and bounding from the earth, he descended immediately upon the alligator's back and seized it by its throat. The monster of the deep, roused from its slumber, opened its tremendous jaws, and slashed its terrific tail; and, while the conflict lasted each seemed to exert its utmost strength. The tiger, however, had the advantage, for he had grasped the alligator in a part of the neck which entirely prevented him from turning his head sufficiently round to seize his antagonist; and though many severe blows were inflicted on the body of the tiger by its saw-like tail, the noble beast of the forest, when the battle was over, shook his brawny sides, and seemed unconscious of any pain. Having overcome the alligator, he dragged it a little farther on the shore, and sat over it exactly in the attitude of a cat over a captive mouse. He then took the creature in his mouth, and gently walked with it into the jungles. About ten minutes afterward we saw the tiger emerge from the forest; and after gazing on us for a few moments, and perhaps imagining that we were almost too far from the shore to allow him to add us to his trophies of victory and blood, he slowly pursued his course in a different direction to where he had left his prey, and we saw him no more. In less than an hour afterward, the alligator, who had been stunned but not killed, crept out of the jungle, and though evidently much injured, yet with some difficulty reached the river, and escaped his sanguinary foe; he, however, was too much lacerated to remain long in the water, and soon came again to land; but took the precaution of exposing but a part of his body, and keeping his face toward the shore; he continued but a very short time and then launched into the deep, repeating his visits to the beach almost every quarter of an hour whilst we remained. The sight was certainly dreadfully magnificent.

caught, therefore, he is only punished by having a bell hung round his neck, for the purpose of giving warning to little children. Animated nature here luxuriates in all its primitive grandeur, whether we regard the magnitude, the multitude, or the beauty which every where fills and adorns the earth, air, and water: happily however for man, the Creator has wisely ordained that his creatures should prey on each other, were it not so, the present evergreen surface of India must soon become a desert. To particularize the animals of the country, would in a work of this nature be supererogatory, suffice it to say, that no where may the epicure or the gourmand have his palate gratified, or his taste satiated, at less expense, and with greater variety than in British India, where it must be admitted, the reputed (but erroneously entertained idea of the) Pythagoranism of the Hindoos is fully atoned for by the carnivorousness of the Europeans and their descendants.

I am tempted to give here the following interesting description by Miss Emma Roberts,* in which the feudal game of *hawking*, as practised by Anglo-Indian ladies, is delightfully depicted, as also some of the wild sports of the East:—

'To ladies, hog-hunting is of course quite out of the question, and there are very few whose nerves could stand against the terror and carnage of an expedition against tigers, to say nothing of the fatigue to be encountered in a chase which frequently lasts for hours under a burning sun. *Hawking*, where there is less excitement, may be relinquished at pleasure, and the pursuit of game leads the party into wildernesses far removed from the dwellings of man. The sylvan denizens of the soil are seen in their native haunts; the majestic nylghau, roused at the approach of intruders, scours across the plain, or crashes through the boughs of a neighbouring thicket; herds of antelopes are seen grazing, and at every step the elephant puts up some beautiful bird or some strange and interesting animal; wolves and bears may be detected stealing off to a more secluded covert, whilst the porcupine utters its shrill cry of alarm, and the monkey gibbers at the passing pageant.

* India is much indebted to Miss Roberts for the fascinating manner in which the highly gifted Authoress has brought its picturesque scenery and singular people before the British public.

'Wild geese afford the best sport; they soar exceedingly high, and frequently bid defiance to the falcon's adventurous wing. Smaller birds, partridges especially, have no chance of escape, and when appearing on the edge of those bason-like valleys, which so frequently diversify the plains of India, their capture is seen to great advantage from the back of an elephant, as the spectator can look down upon the whole scene; and following the flight of the hawk along the steep, where the frightened partridge hurries for shelter, observe the fatal precision of his aim, and see him pounce directly on the victim, which he bears to the falconer in his claw. In some parts of the country, the largest description of the hawk is trained to the chase, and its murderous talons are directed against antelopes and the smaller kinds of deer; it darts at the head of the quarry, blinds and confuses it with its flapping wings, tears it with its beak and claws, and finally succeeds in depriving it of life. This is not, however, a common exhibition, and is seldom witnessed except at the courts of native princes. Hunting with *cheetahs* (leopards) is more commonly practised; but though the manœuvres of the cat-like pursuer are exceedingly curious and interesting, as they develope the nature and habits of the animal, there is nothing noble, generous, or exciting in the sport. The cheetahs, hooded like hawks, are secured by a slight harness to a platform fastened on a bullock cart; their keeper holds the beasts in his hand, and those who wish to obtain a good view of the chase, take a seat beside the driver. Antelopes accustomed to the sight of bullocks will permit them to make a much nearer approach than any less familiar animal. When the carts have arrived at a prudent distance from the herd, the driver halts, the cheetahs are unloosed, and espying the prey, they drop silently off the vehicle, taking care to choose the contrary side from that on which the deer are feeding. They steal crouching, along the ground, screening themselves behind every bush, hillock or tuft of grass, which may occur in their way, pausing occasionally when there seems to be any danger of a premature alarm; each has singled out his victim, and measuring the distance with an experienced eye, they dart forward with a sudden bound. Two or three springs ensure success or disappointment; the victor alights upon his prey. But if a threatened antelope should have the good fortune to escape the first attempt, no second effort is made; the cheetah returns growling and in ill-humour to his keeper; he has lost his advantage, and sullenly relinquishes a field which must be won fairly by strength and speed. The poorer class of natives, who take up the occupation of hunters for their own subsistence or pecuniary emolument, sometimes avail themselves of the services of a bullock in approaching within shot of a herd of antelopes. Theirs is a matter of business, not of excitement, and they have no idea of allowing a chance to the object of their pursuit. The bullock is carefully trained for the purpose, and when his education is completed, he makes a

quiet entrance into the jungles, followed closely by his master, who contrives to screen himself completely behind the animal. The bullock grazes carelessly as he advances, making circuitous and apparently unpremeditated movements; at last he arrives at a convenient distance without having disturbed the unconscious herd, he then stands still, the *shikare* or hunter fixes his clumsy matchlock along the back of the animal, and still unseen takes unerring aim: down drops the devoted antelope, and away fly the rest of the herd, dispersed and out of sight in an instant. Europeans rarely witness this kind of sport, if such it may be called; but it sometimes falls to the lot of a solitary traveller, who from some elevation obtains an extensive view over a wide plain, to have an opportunity of watching the singular manœuvres employed by the hunter and his uncouth agent. Where the weapons at hand are inefficient for open warfare, stratagems must supply the place of more generous hostility; and even Anglo-Indians are sometimes compelled to adopt native arts, and when the assistance of elephants cannot be procured, they will condescend to lay a bait for a tiger, and sit patiently in a tree until the fierce animal shall repair to his evening repast, and they can shoot him while, in fancied security, he is indulging his appetite; others, disdaining such unwarlike defences, will encounter a tiger singly on horseback. This is of course a very difficult and dangerous enterprize; few steeds, however noble, can be brought to face an enemy of which they entertain an instinctive dread. The vicinity of a tiger is often discovered by the distress and terror exhibited by horses, who even in their stables have been known to fall into fits of trembling and perspiration, occasioned by their secret conviction that their foe is at hand; and when a horse is found sufficiently courageous to encounter so terrible a savage, the most extraordinary activity, coolness, presence of mind, accuracy of eye and strength of arm, are necessary to ensure the victory. The hunter, after putting up the tiger, wheels round him in a circle at full speed, never permitting, in the rapidity of his movements, a single moment for the fatal spring, and when the tiger, bewildered and dazzled, offers an unguarded front, pins him to the earth with the thrust of a spear.'

The quadrupeds which appear to characterise more particularly the regions of continental India are the following.* They are arranged under those divisions of the peninsula where naturalists inform us they are chiefly found:—

1. *Hindostan generally.*

Genetta fasciata. Banded genett.
Mus giganteus. Gigantic rat.
Cercocebus radiatus. Radiated monkey.
Papio apedia. Thumbless baboon.
Papio niger. Black baboon.
Rhinoceros indicus. Indian rhinoceros.
Pteropus palliatus. Mottled bat.
Ursus malayanus. Malay bear.
Ursus labiatus. Thick-lipped bear.

* From *Murray's Geography*. Article, *Asia*.

Mangusta mungos. Indian ichneumon.
Prionodon ? albifrons. White fronted P.
Leo asiaticus. *Swains.* Asiatic lion.
Felis tigris. Royal tiger.
Felis venatica. Maneless hunting leopard.
Cervus porcinus. Brown stag.
Raphicerus acuticornis. Sharp-horned antelope.
Antilope cervicapra. Common antelope.
Raphicerus subulata. Awl-horned antelope.
Gerbillus indicus. Indian gerbil.
Hystrix fasiculata. Pencil-tailed porcupine.
Hystrix macroura. Long-tailed Indian porcupine.
Tetracerus Chicara (*H. Smith*). Chicara antelope.
Tetracerus quadricornis. Four-horned antelope.
Nœmorhedus duvaucelii (*H. Smith*). Duvaucel's antelope.
Bos bubalus. Common buffalo.
Bos Gaurus. Gaur buffalo.
Bos Gaveus. Gayal buffalo.

2. *Bengal.*

Cerocebus cynosurus. The malbrouck.
Nycticebus bengalensis. Slow lemur.
Nyctinomus bengalensis. Bengal bat.
Pteropus marginatus. Bordered bat.
Genetta bondar. Bondar genett.
Viverra prehensilis. Prehensile viverra.
Manis crassicaudata. Short-tailed manis.
Cervus hippelaphus. Great russa.
Cervus aristotelis. Black stag.

3. *Pondicherry.*

Pteropus leschenaultii. Spotted bat.
Sorex indicus. Indian shrew.
Lutra nair. Pondicherry otter.
Viverra typus. Common viverra.
Mus indicus. Indian rat.
Mus Perchal. Perchal rat.

MINERAL KINGDOM.—The British possessions in India abound with iron,* copper,† lead, antimony, plumbago, zinc, sulphur, silver, and gold, together with inexhaustible supplies of coal, in various parts of the country. Coal (see Geology) is now raised in Burdwan in considerable quantities, and it is preferred for the steam vessels at Calcutta, to European or New South Wales coal, in consequence of its not so soon filling the flues, owing to the pureness of the bitumen and the superior quality of the gas.

In Sylhet a fine coal mine has been found; the coal mine now working at Chirra Poonjee produces a mineral, which does not leave one fourth as much ashes as the Burdwan coal; the strata are nearly horizontal, requiring no pumps or machinery for drainage; it is delivered at the Sanatarium at 400 lbs. weight for 1*s*. The coal now worked is of the slaty

* Boglipoor district is peculiarly rich in iron; and about Pointy and Siccary Gully, very large mines have been worked in former times: the ore is nodular, and yields from 20 to 25 per cent. iron. The Sylhet hills produce in the greatest abundance fine granular iron ore like sand.

† At a meeting of the Bengal Asiatic Society, 20th February, 1833, specimens of copper ore from Nellore were presented on the part of Mr. Kerr. The mines appear to lie to the northward of the Pennar river, 36 miles N.N.W. of Nellore, and 37 W. from the sea, near a village called Ganypenta in Arrowsmith's map.

kind, specific gravity 1.447., containing volatile matter, 36.; carbon, 41; and a copious white ash, 23=100; seams of a superior coal, from two to four feet thick, have been more recently discovered contiguous to abundance of excellent iron ore. Coal has been recently discovered at Fatehpúr (Nerbudda) which shewed near the surface; *water* separated on a sand heat, 3.5; *volatile matter* not inflammable, 10·5; *charcoal* fixed, 22; *earthy residue* red 64=100. Specific gravity of coal worked at the mines on the Kosya or Cossyah hills, 1.275; *composition* volatile matter or gas, 38.5; carbon or coke, 60.7; earthy impurities, 0.8=100, (the ash is exceedingly small). The coal found near Hardwar in the Himalaya mountains, has a specific gravity of 1.968, *composition* volatile matter, 35.4; carbon 50.; ferruginous ash, 14.6=100; coal found in Arracan, specific gravity, 1.308; gives out bitumen and gas on ignition; *composition*, volatile matter, much 66.4; carbon, 33; ash, 0.6=100.

Mr. Wildey, late paymaster of His Majesty's Fourth Light Dragoons, who was stationed in Cutch, thus describes the coal found there. The best coal of the mine contains charcoal 70 per cent., bitumen 20 per cent., sulphur 5 per cent., iron 3 per cent., and calcareous earths 2 per cent. The second sort, charcoal 60, bitumen 15, oxyd of iron, 9 earths 10, sulphur 4, hydrogen and carbon acids 2 per cent.*

Rich iron ore is abundant in Cutch, and is gathered in baskets on the surface of the earth, and possesses 22 per cent. of iron, and is from 10 to 12 per cent. more than the common iron ore. The natives of Cutch make steel chain armour, sabres, pikes, and various sharp-edged tools; they are the best blacksmiths in Asia; their horseshoes are particularly fine, the iron being more malleable and soft, and not so likely to break. The veterinary surgeon of the fourth Dragoons said they were the finest shoes he ever saw, and far preferable to those made in England. The iron ore found in the S. of India is equally good. Mr. Heath is now pro-

* Some recent accounts state that Cutch does not possess any extensive coal mines; I give however Mr. Wildey's statement in order to induce further enquiry.

ducing excellent iron near Madras. The Himalaya mines supply, chiefly, varieties of red iron ore, affording from 30 to 60 per cent of metal: near Kalsi, on the Jumna, there is an extensive bed of specular iron ore; red hematite, associated with micaceous iron ore, occurs in a large bed in gneis at Dhaniakat: at Rhamghur, on the road from Bhamouri to Almorah, there are beds of the scaly red iron ore, also in gneis: compact red iron ore occurs in clay-slate, containing beds of limestone at Katsari, on the Rhamganga: in some places a brown ore of the hydadit species, containing manganese, and affording a superior steel, is found. Boglipoor district is peculiarly rich in iron, and about Pointy and Siccary Gully, very large iron mines have been worked in former times: the ore is nodular, and yields from 20 to 25 per cent. iron. The Sylhet hills produce in the greatest abundance fine granular iron ore like sand. *Copper mines* are worked at Dhanpur, Dhobri, Gangoli, Sira, Pokri, Khari, and Shor Gurang. The ore found in the Dhanpur mine is *grey copper ore*, which affords from 30 to 50 per cent. of copper; it is associated with *malachite*, or green carbonate of copper. The ores are contained in a compact red-coloured dolomite; hence mining operations can be carried on without the expense of wooden frame-work, or masonry. The Pokri mine, or mines, are situated in talc slate of a loose texture; and hence the working is more difficult. The ores are *vitreous* and *purple copper*, both of them rich in copper. The waters flowing from the mine are impregnated with *sulphate of copper* or blue vitriol. The Sira and Gangoli mines are situated in beds of indurated talc, which are enclosed in dolomite. Sometimes the one, sometimes the other rock, form the walls of the mine. The iron is *yellow copper* or *copper pyrites*, mixed with iron pyrites and smaller portions of grey copper ore. The Khari and Shor Gurang mines are similiarly situated, the ores are *grey copper*, *yellow copper* or *copper pyrites*, and *carbonate of copper*. Mines exist to the northward of the Pennar river, 36 miles N.N.W. of Nellore, and 37 W. from the sea, near a village called Ganypenta in

Arrowsmith's map. The copper ore prevails over a considerable tract of country; it consists of malachite, and of black anhydrous oxide of copper, with red and yellow ochre imbedded in micaceous schist. The ore differs from the English coppers essentially, in being free from iron pyrites and other deteriorating ingredients, as lead, antimony, sulphur, &c., which make that ore difficult to purify, whereas the Nellore ore becomes quite pure by simple smelting. A specimen of reduced metal sent with the ores to the Asiatic Society, is of a very fine colour and highly malleable. On analyzing the ore, it was found to contain, carbonic acid, 16-8; black oxide copper, 60-75; red oxide iron, 19-4; silica and loss, 3-05—100. Four different varieties examined by the secretary contained from 13 to 47 per cent. of red oxide of iron and silex. *Lead.*—The most productive of these mines are situated on the River Tonse, near the Deyrah Doon; the ore (a fine granular galena) is found in clay-slate and clay-limestone. It would be tedious to particularize other productions; two have been recently discovered. A native sulphate of alumina obtained from the aluminous rocks of Nepál (used by the native doctors to cure green wounds or bruises), yielding on analysis, sulphate of alumina, 95; peroxide of iron, 3; silex, 1; loss, 1—100; and a native sulphate of iron is procured from the hills of Behar, and used by the dyers of Patna, yielding sulphate of iron, 39; peroxide of iron, 36; magnesia, 23; loss, 2—100. These two minerals, the natural productions of Nepál and Behar, may be had in the largest quantities, and would be found extremely useful in the manufacture of Prussian blue, calico printing, and dying. Common salt (muriat of soda).—Carbonate of soda and nitrate of potash occur in many districts forming the salt, soda, and nitre soils. A salt lake, 20 miles long by 1½ broad, is situate near Samber at Rajpoot Town, in lat. 26.53. and long. 74.57.; it supplies a great portion of the neighbouring country with salt on the drying up of the lake after the rains. In Berar there is a salt lake, called Loonar, lying in a sort of cauldron of rocks; it contains in the 100

parts, muriat of soda 20, muriat of lime 10, muriat of magnesia 6. Natron and soda lakes are said to occur in the Himalaya range; towards the sources of the Indus salt lakes were observed by Mr. Gerard, at 16,000 feet elevation above the sea; and there is an extensive salt mine in the Punjaub.

The valuable diamonds and other precious stones found in Golconda, in Orissa, Bundlecund, &c. require no detailed notice; silver ore, of a rich quality, is obtained in different places. Gold is found in the beds of most rivers, particularly in Nielgherries; but it exists in abundance in the state of ore in Malabar. This precious metal has been discovered not only in Coimbatore, but throughout that tract of the country lying W. and S. of the Nielgherry mountains and Koondanad. It is found here in great quantities. The whole of the country W. of the Nielgherry mountains, in the taloogs of Parakameetil, especially at Nelliala, Cherangote, Koonyote, Kotah, Nambolacota, Daraloor, &c. &c. also the adjoining Koondanad and Ghaut mountains, and all the rivers and cholas (watercourses) down as far W. as Nellambore, and S.W. as Caladicota, Karimpure, Aliparamba, &c. the whole tract, including the mountains, perhaps comprising 2000 square miles, is impregnated with gold. Even the very stones in the beds of rivers, when pounded, have been found to contain particles of that valuable metal. It is found in solid pieces, but generally it is in extremely small particles, obtained in washing the sand of all the rivers as far as Nellambore, Karimpure, &c. as well as in the soil. Gold dust is procured in considerable quantities in every river in the Bhot Mehals of Kumaon, and is abundant in the multitude of rivers and streams in Assam. According to native statements, there is a valuable gold mine called Pakerguri, at the junction of the Dousiri, or Douhiri river, with the Brahmaputra, about 32 miles from Gohati. In 1809, it was estimated that 1,000 men were employed in collecting gold, and that the State annually received 1,500 rupees weight in gold. There can be no doubt that when the riches of India begin to be appreciated in England, the precious metals will flow in abundance from the eastern to the western hemisphere.

Provinces.	Cities and Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Europeans.	Hindoos.			Mussulmans.			Native Christians.	Jains or Buddhists.	All other Sects.	Total Males.	Total Females.	Grand Total.	Density to Square Mile.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.							
Bengal.	Calcutta, City	3	1000												1000000	333333
	Ditto, 24 Pergunnas	4722													1650000	350
	Hooghly, District	2260													1510350	681
	Nuddea, do.	3105													1854275	600
	Jessore, do.	5180													1750106	338
	Backergunge, do.	2789													686610	250
	Dacca, City															
	Ditto, District	4435													891760	201
	Tipperah, do.	6838													1372200	200
	Chittagong, do.	2980													790905	265
	Sylhet, do.	4000													1085720	270
	Mymensing, do.	6988													1454670	208
	Rajeshaye, do.	3950													4087153	1030
	Moorshedabad, City	1870	130	44438	45648	90086	28442	27648	56090						14 206	817
	Ditto, District		123	241710	223514	465224	188036	168096	356732						821981	
	Jungle Mehals, do.	6990													1391740	200
	Birbhoom, do.	3870													1267665	327
	Dinagepoor, do.	5920													2625720	443
	Rungpoor, do.	7855													1234650	170
	Burdwan, do.	2000													1487263	743
	Rhanghur, do.	22130													2325632	105
	Boglipoor, do.	7270													797790	109
	Bahar, do.	5525													1340610	252
Bahar.	Patna, City															
	Ditto, District	667													261705	400
	Shahabad, do.	4650													908856	200
	Purneah, do.	7460													1660284	220
	Tirhoot, do.	7732													1966720	254
	Sarun, do.	4760													1494000	316
	Shahabulpore, do.															
	Benares, City															
Benares.	Ditto, District	350														
	Midnapore, do.	8260													1914060	232
Orissa.	Hidjellee, do.															
	Cuttack, City	9000														
	Ditto, District	11580													1994620	220
	Arracan, do.															
	Assam, do.	15000														
	Tavoy, Ye, &c. do.	15000														4
	Ghazeepore, do.	2850														
	Azimghur, do.	2230														
	Goruckpoor, do.	9250														
	Jumpoor, do.	4820														
	Allahabad, City		50	21501	22615	44106	9910	10759	20669						64825	294
	Ditto, District	2650	150	251789	302417	554206	90531	70678	161209						715463	
	Banda, do.	4683														
	Bulpee, do.															
	Futtehpore, do.	1780														
	Cawnpore, do.	2650														
	Etawah, do.	3450														
	Furruckabad, do.	1850														
	Shajehanpoor, do.	1420														
	Saidabad, do.	1000														
	Allyghur, do.	2300														
	Saharan, do.	1800														
	Bareilly, do.	2000														
	Peelibheet, do.	2300														
	Moradabad, do.	5800														
N. W. Provinces of Hindostan.	Agra, City		100	35985	29983	65068	10939	15520	31679						96747	
	Ditto, District	3500														
	Delhi, City															
	Ditto, District	9600														
	Saharanpoor, do.	1420														
	Kumaon, &c. do.	7200														
	Nerbudda, District	85780														
Madras.	Ganjam, do.	3700											222891	216283	439174	118
	Vizigapatam, do.	5800											545574	501740	1047414	187
	Rajamundry, do.	4600											367292	327734	695026	148
	Masulipatam, do.	4810											295182	249190	544672	113
	Guntoor, do.	4900											271792	246526	518318	104
	Bellary, do.	12980											560834	538008	1128839	87
	Cuddapah, do.	12752											559300	504861	1063364	83
	Nellore, do.	7478											448176	398396	846572	113
	Arcot, do.	16702											397835	375113	772968	47
	Chingleput, do.	3020											171699	160122	330821	109
	Madras, City														700000	
	Salem, District	7893											424048	398059	822107	103
	Coimbatore, do.	8392											423178	429661	852834	101
	Trichinopoly, do.	3169											274151	265246	539397	172
	Tanjore, do.	3872											578112	550848	1128720	291
	Madura, do.	7656											578379	557602	1134481	148
	Tinnevelly, do.	5590											430442	420749	850898	152
	Malabar, do.	3900								100000			561172	552325	1113197	285
	Canara, do.	7477								60000			367691	339880	707571	94
Bombay.	Bombay Isle		1000			82592			25920	8000		45068			162580	
	Conkan, N. Dist.	12270													387264	85
	Ditto, S. do.														650851	
	Dharwar, do.	9950													838767	84
	Poonah, City															
	Ditto, District	20870													538333	26
	Kaneish, do.	12420													476457	38
	Surat, City															
	Ditto, District	1350													454131	336
	Barooch, do.	1090													289327	180
	Kairah, do.	1850													434735	232
	Ahmedabad, do.	4600													525073	115
	Kattywar, do.	1728														

* I give this almost blank return as the nearest approximation to correctness; at neither the E. I. House nor India Board are there any further details; I trust it may soon be filled up in India.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION OF BRITISH INDIA.

THEIR NUMERICAL AMOUNT UNDER THE BENGAL, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY PRESIDENCIES—CHARACTER—BRAVERY—LANGUAGES—APPEARANCE—COSTUMES—DWELLINGS—FOOD AND DRINK—LITERATURE, ARCHITECTURE, SCULPTURE, PAINTING, MUSIC, DOMESTIC ARTS, AND SOCIAL IMPROVEMENT, &c.

THE numerical amount of the population of British India it is very difficult to ascertain: in my first edition were given all the details which I could either obtain myself in India, or procure in print, or manuscript, at the E. I. House, Board of Controul, or House of Commons' Library. But little additional statistics have since been received at the public offices.* Yet, in the hope that attention will be turned to the subject, I give the annexed table, leaving the several blank columns to be filled up in India, so as to furnish more complete materials for another edition.

The following return of the number of villages, houses and population of each district in the permanently settled provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, I brought with me from India. For details in each district, as since furnished me from the E. I. House, *see Appendix.*

* In the former edition, the table which I gave of the Madras population was for 1822, which I obtained, in manuscript, at the India House from Mr. Fisher as the latest record; I have now, however, the pleasure of adding a Madras return, dated in 1833, for 1827 and 1831, and, though differently prepared from that of 1822, it is valuable; I give it in the opposite table. For Bengal and Bahar, the materials on which the census is based, namely, on the number of villages and houses in each district, will be found in the Appendix; for Western India there are no returns of any separate district; and for Bombay the returns are of different dates, and compiled in different forms. The complete returns of Moorshedabad and Allahabad are derived from private censuses given in the monthly Journal of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta.

Provinces, Districts, square Miles, Villages, Houses, and Population of the permanently settled Provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa.

Province.	Districts.	Square Miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.
Calcutta.	City*	7	..	53,065	300,000
	Suburbs of ditto	1,105	710	72,172	366,360
	24 Pergunnas	3,610	2,891	129,919	639,295
Patna.	Hoogley	2,260	3,987	267,430	1,540,350
	Nuddea	3,105	4,648	254,622	1,364,275
	Jessore	5,180	6,239	345,796	1,750,406
	Cuttack	9,040	10,511	396,924	1,984,620
	Midnapore	8,260	8,536	382,812	1,914,060
	Burdwan	2,000	6,576	256,310	1,487,263
	Junglemehauls	6,990	6,492	269,948	1,394,740
Moorshedabad.	Ramghur	22,430	12,364	479,563	2,325,632
	Behar	5,235	6,312	268,121	1,340,610
	Tirhoot	7,732	10,976	352,970	1,968,720
	Sarun	5,760	6,118	292,815	1,494,179
	Shahabad	4,650	4,185	181,770	908,856
	Patna	667	1,098	51,141	265,705
	Bhaugulpore	7,270	3,667	159,558	797,790
	Purneah	7,460	5,268	296,472	1,560,284
	Dinagepore	5,920	12,240	498,360	2,625,720
	Rungpoor	7,856	4,231	268,070	1,340,350
	Rajeshahye	3,950	9,170	817,431	4,087,155
	Beerbhoom	3,870	5,287	253,413	1,267,665
	Moorshedabad	1,870	2,342	152,538	762,690
Dacca.	Mymensing	6,988	7,904	290,934	1,454,670
	Sylhet	3,532	5,717	216,744	1,083,720
	Tipperah	6.830	7,529	274,452	1,372,260
	Chittagong	2,980	1,108	140,160	700,800
	Backergunge	2,780	2,454	137,328	686,640
	Dacca	1,870	2,569	102,777	513,885
	Ditto (Jelalpore)	2,585	2,543	117,675	583,375
	Total ..	153,792	154,268	7,781,240	39,957,561

N. WESTERN PROVINCES.—In the return of the population of India by districts, as laid before Parliament in 1831, there are no data for ascertaining the inhabitants of each district in the Upper or Western Provinces, under the Bengal Presidency: Mr. Ewing, in his Police Report in 1826, gives a rough calculation of 32,206,806 for the Benares and Bareilly Provinces, the area of which (excluding Delhi, which is not given,) is 66,510 square miles (*the reader will find the area of each province in the table prefixed to this chapter*) but besides this area, there are 29,800 square miles of ceded districts on the Nerbudda, and 55,900 square miles of districts

* There has been (it is a shame to say so) no census of Calcutta for several years Those who may consider that 1,000,000, or 1,500,000 mouths is an over estimate for Calcutta should recollect that Calcutta, as London, may be said to embrace both sides of the river; the mere city of Calcutta (embraced within the limits of the Supreme Court) may be likened to the *City* of London separate from Westminster;—yet even the *City* of Calcutta contains half a million of inhabitants, if not more.

ceded by the Rajah of Berar in 1826, making a total of 85,700 square miles, of the population of which there are no returns.

I give the accompanying return, just received from India, as a simple form, which the Court of Directors ought to require from every Collectorate in India; where more detail were practicable it might be adopted,—

Population of the City and District of Allahabad in 1831-32.

City.	Houses.	Mussulmans.*					Hindoos.*					Grand Total.
		Men.	Women.	Children. Males.	Children. Females.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Children. Males.	Children. Females.	Total.	
City.....	9219	5661	6158	2251	2518	16593	9850	9621	4061	4903	28433	45021
Suburbs..	4747	1338	1446	660	637	4076	5355	5388	2187	2603	15593	19764
Total	13966	6999	7604	2911	3155	20669	15203	15009	6298	7606	44116	64785

	Houses.	Mussulmans. Males.	Mussulmans. Females.	Total.	Hindoos. Males.	Hindoos. Females.	Total.	Grand Total.
District of Allahabad, exclusive of the City.....	143737	90531	70678	161209	251789	302417	554206	780190

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.—The population of the Madras Presidency, is thus given in some returns furnished me from the India House: it is acknowledged that the census of some of the districts, was not correctly ascertained when the first returns were made, owing to the unwillingness of the zemindars to afford any information to Government:—

* The proportion of Musselmans to the Hindoos in Lower Bengal in the principal Mahomedan City and District is thus shewn—

Population of the City and District of Moorshedabad for 1829.

Division.	No. of Houses. Mussulman.	Hindoo.	Total.	No. of Inhabitants. Mussulman.	Hindoo.	Total.
City.....	14281	25837	40118	56090	90086	146176
District ..	70453	97658	168111	356726	465224	821950
Total	84734	123495	208229	412816	555310	968126

Proportion of sexes in the City.

	males.	females.
Mussulmans	28442	27648
Hindoos	44438	45648

Do. in District.

Mussulmans	188036	168696
Hindoos	241710	223514

Ratio of Inhabitants per house 4.73.

Population and area* of the Provinces under the Madras Government.

Districts.	Extent N. to S. miles	Extent E. to W. miles	Area in Square Miles.	Total of A.D. 1822.	Total of A.D. 1827.	Fusly, 1240, A.D. 1830-31. Males.	Females.	Total.
Ganjam†	120	30	3700	332,015	468,047	222,891	215,283	438,174
Vizagapatam ..	110	50	5600	772,570	1,008,544	545,674	501,740	1,047,414
Rajahmundry ..	100	80	4690	738,368	666,906	367,292	327,724	695,016
Masulipatam ..	100	60	4800	529,849	519,125	295,182	249,490	544,672
Guntoor				454,754	476,787	271,792	246,526	518,318
Nellore	140	75	7478	439,467	730,608	448,176	398,395	846,572
Bellary	289	264	12703	927,857	941,612	590,831	538,008	1,128,839
Cuddapah	262	160	12752	1,094,460	1,090,957	558,300	504,864	1,063,164
Chingleput .. }	120	130	8062	363,321	289,828	171,699	160,122	331,821
N. Division .. }				892,292	739,410	397,855	375,113	772,968
S. ditto	100	90	8500	455,020	549,795	288,277	265,111	553,388
Salem.....	134	80	7593	1,075,985	955,480	424,048	398,059	822,107
Tanjore.....	108	70	3872	901,353	1,065,560	578,112	550,618	1,128,730
Trichinopoly ..	96	48	3169	481,295	476,720	274,151	262,546	536,697
Madura, &c.‡ ..	190	166	6932	601,293	1,122,979	578,379	557,032	1,135,411
Shevagunga....	54	49	1724	186,903				
Tinnevelly	135	80	5590	561,957	766,746	430,142	420,749	850,891
Coimbatore	162	86	8392	638,199	854,050	425,170	429,664	854,834
Canara	230	46	7477	657,594	665,652	367,691	339,880	707,571
Malabar	118	65	4980	907,575	1,063,66	561,179	552,325	1,113,497
Madras City....				462,051	(No returns since 1822.)			700,000
Total	2559	11628	97864	14,086,918	14,287,272	7,796,834	7,293,250	15,090,084

The census of the Bombay Presidency is less to be depended on than the foregoing; combining Colonel Sykes's information with the scanty intelligence laid before Parliament, I make up the following return, as the nearest approximation to truth which is at present attainable.

Divisions.	Collectorates.	Square miles.	Villages	Houses.	Population.	Remarks.
	Bombay Isle..	18	..	20,786	230,000	In the Deckhan which includes an area of 48,987 square miles, and a population of 3,285,985, the average number of mouths to the sq. mile is 6,708, and the proportion of males to females, about 100 to 86; the Mussulmans form only from 6 to 8 per cent. of the whole population; the Mahrattas, from 60 to 70 per cent., the Brahmins from 5 to 10 per cent. Rajpoots, from 3 to 6 per cent. and outcasts, &c. from 9 to 10 per cent.
Deccan.	Poonah	8,281	1,897	114,887	558,313	
	Ahmednuggur	9,910	2,465	136,273	666,376	
	Khandeish....	13,527	2,738	120,622	478,457	
	Dharwar	9,122	2,491	187,222	838,757	
	S. Jagheerdars	2,978	917	..	778,183	
	Sattara, Ditto.	6,169	1,703	..	736,284	
	Concan, S.....	6,770	2,340	..	656,857	
	Concan, N.....	5,500	..	..	387,264	
	Surat, &c.....	1,449	655	108,156	454,431	
	Broach	1,351	409	55,549	239,527	
	Ahmedabad...	4,972	728	175,926	528,073	
	Kaira	1,827	579	127,231	484,735	
	Total	68074	16912	10,966,52	6,940,277	

* I give the area and population from separate Manuscripts at the India House which do not agree in the names of the districts.

† Gangam is exclusive of the Zemindaries, Jaradah, Vizianagaram, and Daracote, in which no census appears to have been taken in that year, thus accounting for the apparent decrease.

‡ This includes Ramnad 2,500 and Dindigul, 2,624 square miles.

Census of the Population of the Islands of Bombay and Colabah, taken in the months of August, September, October, and November, 1826.

No. of Houses.		English.	Portuguese.	Parsees.	Jews.	Americans.	Moors.	Hindoos.	Malays.	Chinese.	Total.
1,219	Fort	432	359	6303	70	39	1232	5029	142	5	13611
520	Colabah . .	175	412	124	..	..	303	1358	204	..	2576
5,457	Dungaree . .	46	1294	1764	1200	.	12888	29654	513	..	47359
4,311	Byculiah . .	51	114	983	..	..	9226	19076	1633	..	31083
631	Malabar Hill,&c.	59	44	119	..	..	51	2180	29	10	2492
2,259	Gurgaum . .	61	1448	1074	..	..	519	9898	7	33	13040
891	Mazagon . .	82	810	304	..	..	302	3056	142	..	4696
1,309	Mahim East .	24	1219	41	..	..	258	4773	99	..	6414
3,595	Mahim West .	8	2320	26	..	..	1141	7568	236	..	11299
20,195	Total .										132570
	Military } Esti-										10000
	Floating } mated										20000
	Grand Total.	938	8020	10738	1270	39	25920	82592	3005	48	162570

It is difficult to say how near any of the foregoing returns, except those for Madras, approximate towards correctness; the estimated population of 422,990 square miles here given is 89,577,206, leaving 91,200 square miles of British territory of the population of which no accounts can be traced; but if we allow the low rate of 90 mouths to the square mile, it will make the population of the British territories about *one hundred million!* Now to this vast number, we are to add the inhabitants of the protected and allied states; the area of which is greater than that of the British territory by 100,000 square miles; and allowing an equal amount of population to the British territories, it will give a grand total of TWO HUNDRED MILLION INHABITANTS,* directly and indirectly under the sway of Great Britain, and subject to the Government of the Hon. East India Company!. The number of whites, or

* The following estimate has been made of the population of the allied and independent states:—Hydrabad 10,000,000; Oude, 6,000,000; Nagpoor, 3,000,000; Mysore, 3,000,000; Sattara, 1,500,000; Gaickwar, 2,000,000; Travancore and Cochin, 1,000,000; Rajpootana and various minor principalities 16,500,000; Scindias territories, 4,000,000; the Seiks, 3,000,000; Nepál, 2,000,000; Cashmere, &c. 1,000,000; Sinde, 1,000,000; total 51,000,000. This, of course, is but a rough estimate by Hamilton.

Europeans, does not, including all the military, amount to 100,000.*

It does not fall within the province of a work, the object of which is to enable the British public to appreciate duly the vast importance and actual condition of the Colonies of this Empire,—it does not, I say, fall within the legitimate or advisable scope of such an undertaking to speculate on abstract questions, such, for instance, as the *origin* of the Hindoos,—whether the earth was primitively peopled from the Polar regions (as asserted by a French philosopher), or from the lofty table land of Hindostan (as contended for by many),—whether the Hindoos were originally migratory Scythian or Tartar colonists, or emigrants from Egypt, or *vice versa*, or whether they are a nation of 1,000 or 12,000 years' antiquity; all these disquisitions would be unsuited to work of this description, and as until the last 50 years little or nothing had been known in Europe of peninsular Asia, probably more time will be requisite for the just developement of important truths; I will, therefore, proceed to observe that a misconception has long prevailed that, the inhabitants of British India, to the number of 100,000,000, are a primitive, simple people, usually termed Hindoos, who abstain from eating anything that ever breathed the breath of life, and are invariably disciples of Menu. It would be as absurd to speak of all the inhabitants of Europe as one race, because they wear hats, shave, and are (at least) professedly Christians, as it would be absurd to speak of the many millions who inhabit our possessions on the Continent of Asia as one people because they, generally, wear turbans, do not shave their faces,† and are nominally the worshippers of Brahma. In fact, there

* From Assam I have just received the following data: territory, 400 miles long, and 65 broad at the broadest part; population, 830,000; revenue, S. R. 3,50,000.

† The Hindoos shave the chin and cheeks, but not the upper lip, which is nearly the reverse of the Mahomedans.

is a greater diversity of character and language among the natives of Hindostan than there is in all Europe.

Bishop Heber justly observed, 'it is a great mistake to suppose that all India is peopled by a single race, or that there is not as great a disparity between the inhabitants of Guzerat, Bengal, the Dûab, and the Deckan both in language, manners, and physiognomy, as between any four nations in Europe;' and again, 'the inhabitants of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, and of the Deckhan, are as different from those nations I have seen, and from each other, as the French and Portuguese from the Greeks, Germans, and Poles. Colonel Todd remarks that along the course of the River *Chumbul* (500 miles) may be found specimens of the various Indian races of *Soondees, Chunderawats, Seesoodias, Aaras Gore, Jadoon, Sikerwal Goojur, Jaút, Tuar, Chohan, Bhadoria Kutchwaha, Sengar, Boondela,* &c., each in associations of various magnitudes, from the substantive state to the little republic communes between the *Chumbul* and *Cohari.* Mr, Crawford thinks that, 'in India there are at least 30 nations, speaking as many distinct languages;' and that, these Indian nations are unknown to each other; the Mahrattas being as much strangers to the people of Bengal, or to those of the Carnatic as we are; the Seiks are strangers to the Mahrattas, and some 15,000,000 Mahomedans differ from each other in nation, in sect, and often in language. Bengal, Assam, Arracan, Behar, the upper Provinces Kumaon, the Sikh States, Rajpootana, and Bundlecund (to say nothing of Southern or Western India) contain respectively a people as different from each other as Holland, France, Spain, Portugal, England, Scotland, Germany, and Switzerland; Madras, Bombay, and central India contain a population as different from each other as the foregoing, and may be likened to the Greeks, Austrians, Prussians, Poles, and various Russian tribes.

The Mussulmans are divided into two chief sects—the Soonee and the Shea, as different from each other as Protestant and Catholic among the Christians; and there are nu-

merous subdivisions (as various as those of the Reform faith) whose tenets have more or less effect on their conduct in the affairs of common life; there are also Parsees, Chinese, Malays, Armenians, Syrian, and Roman Catholic Christians, Portuguese descendants, and thousands of other classes. But even among the disciples of Bramah there is a great diversity. The majority perhaps of the Hindoos of Bengal and Orissa do not eat meat, and it has been ascribed to a religious precept forbidding the destruction of animal life; but almost every Hindoo eats *fish*, several eat kid, and many birds: the abstinence from animal food was, in the first instance, owing to an interdict of the priests, in consequence of its scarcity or dearness. Many of the highest Rajpoots and Brahmins in N. and Western India will eat goat's flesh, venison, and *wild* hogs's flesh, while they abhor that of sheep, or *domestic* swine; some will eat the jungle cock (which is pretty similar to our game cock except in size) who would think the touch of a domestic fowl pollution; very many castes will eat some particular kind of food but refuse others: at Bikaneer, all the Hindoos profess an abhorrence of fish; at Kumaon they will eat the *short*-tailed sheep of the hills, but will not touch one with a *long* tail: many castes will eat bread baked by people who would lose caste if they were to touch boiled rice prepared by the same hands: an *earthen* pot is polluted past redemption by being touched by an inferior caste, a metal one suffers no such deterioration: some tribes allow a man to smoke, through his hands, from the bowl (chillum) which contains the tobacco, but would not allow the same person to touch that part of the hookah which contains the water. Instances such as these might be multiplied *ad infinitum*.

In points of greater importance there is as great a difference between the various tribes of Hindoos, as among the different sects of Christians; even the religious holidays observed in Bengal are different from those kept in the Upper Provinces, the barbarous ceremonies of Juggernaut's car, and the abominations of Churruk Poonjah (where men are swung in the air with hooks fastened through their loins) are utterly unknown

in Northern and Western India: in some parts of Hindostan female infanticide is almost universal, in others it is held in just abhorrence; again in some parts polygamy prevails, in others polyandria (as in the Himalaya districts, where one woman is married to all the brothers in a family, for the purpose of keeping property in the family); in some places the marriage of a daughter is a cause of great expense to her parents; in others the source of profit, as the husband pays a considerable sum for his wife, and has the power of selling her again, or even of mortgaging her for a certain time in security for a debt which he is unable to pay. Even the Indian Mussulmans have their castes, for which they are thoroughly despised by a Persian or Affghan.

The different nations, classes, and sects of Hindostan may be thus summarily distinguished, in order to mark their variety. Insidious, cruel, and talented Brahmins, war-like Khetries, industrious Shoodras, ambitious but sensual Moslems,* war-like and cunning Mahrattas,† peaceful money-changing

* The number of Moslems throughout British India has been estimated at from ten to fifteen million; in some places they do not form one-sixteenth of the population.

† The Deccan is the principal country of the Mahrattas: the total population of this division of Hindostan is about 3,285,985 souls, of whom about 70 per cent. are Mahrattas; the remainder, according to Lieut.-Col Sykes, consists of low caste Brahmins, Mussulmans, and Rajpoots. The clear evidence of this talented officer before Parliament thus displays the difference between the portion of the Hindoos called Mahrattas and those who are not; and he also draws a comparison between the Hindoos generally and the Mussulmans.

'The Mahrattas are a nation speaking a language peculiar to themselves. The nation comprises Mahratta Brahmins, Mahratta low castes, and other various castes of Hindoos; but the genuine Mahratta belongs to that great division of the Hindoos denominated Shoodrah, a division comprising an infinity of distinctive groups or races, none of the members of which will eat or intermarry with Shoodrahs not belonging to their own group or race. There are certainly minute shades of difference amongst the Mahrattas, but no distinction of caste. There are local circumstances that probably prevent one family intermarrying with another; but still every Mahratta can eat with his neighbour Mahratta, unless the latter should have been expelled from his caste, an event of no unusual occurrence.

Jains,* feudatory and high-spirited Rajpoots, roving and thieving Batties and Catties,† scrupulously honest Parsees,‡ lynx-eyed Jews,§ heroic Goorkas, professionally murdering Thugs and Phasingars,|| mercantile Armenians,¶ freebooting Pindaries, vindictive but grateful Nairs, sedate Nestorians,** filthy Mughs,†† haughty Persians, actively commercial Chi-

'I think, on the whole, the minds of the Mussulmans are superior to the Hindoos; the Mussulmans are men of greater elevation of sentiment, greater energy of purpose and dignity of character; they are more luxurious and dissipated, but they are decidedly more martial, manly and cultivated, as a people, than the Hindoos: they are, however, great bigots, which the Hindoos are not. They harmonize, however, very well with the Hindoos; the Hindoos even assist to celebrate some of their religious festivals; and it is very remarkable that all the butchers' meat consumed by the Hindoos (which is considerable), is prepared, as far as the slaughter and cutting up of the animal goes, by Mussulman butchers only.

* The Jains are somewhat similar in features as well as in manners and religion, to the Budhists of Ceylon and Siam

† These wandering outlaws worship the sun, and hold the moon in great veneration.

‡ The Parsees (of whom there are 10,738 in Bombay island) are one of the finest races of people that are any where to be found; although descendants of the Guebers, or fire worshippers, whose heroism is so well known, they are now generally engaged in traffic, in the details of which they display an honesty, intelligence, and nobleness which is no where surpassed.

§ The Jews are very numerous in India and in China, and many are to be found in the ranks of the Bombay army, where they have behaved bravely; the Asiatic Jews are distinguished from those of Europe by immense 'Roman' noses.

|| The Phasingars of the S. of India are professional murderers, like the Thugs; the latter, however, are composed of men of all castes, and it is remarkable that *Brahmins* are the most numerous and the chief directors of the horrid vocation of their sect.

¶ The Armenians in their manners and peaceful, honourable calling as merchants, bear no slight resemblance to the Parsees.

** The Nestorian Christians are very numerous in the S. of India, and deservedly much admired for their peaceful, intelligent, and industrious habits

†† The Mughs, or natives of Arracan, are a short muscular race, of a copper colour, with round, flat features. They possess more activity and

nese,* mercenary Sindeans, martial Seiks,† fanatical Roman Catholics,‡ despotic Poligars, bigotted Gosseins, prescribed Sontals, piratical Concanese, turbulent Mhairs and Meenas, degraded Muniporeans, sanguinary and untameable Koolies, timid and apathetic Assamese,§ Quaker-like Kaits,|| wild Puharees,¶ pastoral Todawars,** maritime Cutch,†† usurious

natural courage than the Bengalees, but less than their late masters, the Burmese. Their food is chiefly fish and rice, but they object not to a dish of stewed rats or boiled snakes, or a fried section of the putrifying carcase of an elephant; nothing, in fact, from a maggot to a mammoth, comes amiss to a voracious Mugh. These ancient people form six-tenths of a population of 100,000 in Arracan; the Mussulmans the remaining three-tenths, and the Burmese one-tenth.

* This extraordinary race are colonizing themselves fast in Calcutta, and by their superior skill as artizans, are engrossing to themselves the principal handicrafts of the city.

† The eagle eye, Roman nose and flowing beard, give the Seik cavaliers a noble appearance; and in horsemanship they are perhaps not excelled by any other nation, European or Asiatic.

‡ The Roman Catholics (descendants from the Portuguese and French, or converts to their faith) amount, it is said, to 600,000; they are sunk in a state of idolatry not far removed from Hindooism. There are 50,000 Portuguese, or converts to their religion, assuming Portuguese names, in the territories under the Bombay Presidency.

§ The population of Assam (400 miles long by 65 broad) is 830,000; the inhabitants in general are remarkable for their timid submission and apathetic character, and for their ordinary features, or it might be termed ugliness, not even excepting the women; there are a few hill tribes of a more manly character and appearance, and the Camroop women are spoken of as handsome. The Assamese are of the Brahminical faith, but separated into an almost infinite variety of sects.

|| The Kaits, like the Quakers, support each other; — none are uneducated, they are never seen in a state of indigence or in a menial capacity; they differ from the 'Quakers' in not being of a strictly moral character.

¶ The Puharees inhabit the hilly country between Burdwan and Boglipoor, and appear to be the aborigines of Bengal; they have no castes, care nothing for the Hindoo faith, and do not worship idols; their language, features and manners are alike distinct from the people of the plains.

** This manly race, who in features and independent feelings strongly resemble the ancient Romans, inhabit the table land of Coimbatore.

†† Among the timid navigators of the East, the mariner of Cutch is

Soucars and Shroffs,* outcast Pariars, ferocious Malays, innocent Karians, dissolute Moguls,† peaceful Telingars, anomalous Grassias, grasping Jauts or Jats,‡ effeminate Ooriens,§

truly adventurous; he voyages to Arabia, the Red Sea, and the coast of Zanguebar in Africa, bravely stretching out on the ocean after quitting his native shore. The 'moallim,' or pilot, determines his position by an altitude at noon, or by the stars at night, with a rude quadrant. Coarse charts depict to him the bearings of his destination, and, by long-tried seamanship, he weathers, in an undecked boat with a huge lateen sail, the dangers and tornadoes of the Indian Ocean. The use of the quadrant was first learned by a native of Cutch, who made a voyage to Holland in the middle of the last century, and returned, 'in a green old age,' to enlighten his countrymen with the arts and sciences of Europe. The most substantial advantages introduced by this improver of his country were the arts of navigation and naval architecture, in which the inhabitants of Cutch excel. For a trifling reward, a Cutch mariner will put to sea in the rainy season, and the adventurous feeling is encouraged by the Hindoo merchants of Mandavie, an enterprising and speculative body of men.

* Bankers and money changers, a tribe spread all over India.

† The dingy white colour of the Moguls of the N. W. provinces is as displeasing to the eye as their filthy licentiousness is to the mind.

‡ The Jâts originally migrated from the province of Mooltan, on the banks of the Indus, and subsisted partly by plunder and partly by commerce and agriculture. During the civil wars of Aurungzebe's successors, the Jâts secured a large portion of the country between the Ganges and Jumna, accumulated much treasure by pillage and spoil, and built several forts, one of which was Bhurtpore; the title of Rajah was then assumed by their chiefs, the principal of whom reigns in Bhurtpore, the total area of whose government is about 5,000 square miles. The Jâts thus alluded to are descended from a low *Sudra* caste, having subsequently assumed the title of *Khetri*, or military caste, and are distinct from the Jâts or old Mahomedan peasantry of the Punjab. The Indus tribe are, however, well entitled to assume the appellation of Khetri, as they are a brave independent race, and one of the most determined enemies which the British forces have engaged with on the battle field.

§ The Oorians inhabit Orissa, and so feminine are they in appearance, that it is difficult to distinguish them from women, both dressing exactly alike. They are timid, but exceedingly dissolute and obscene; they are more versed in low cunning, dissimulation and subterfuge, than perhaps any people in the E., and that is saying much for their character. Their honesty and industry are two remarkable features in contrast with the foregoing traits, with which Mr Stirling depicted the Oorians.

keen-sighted Bunnias,* mendicant Byragies, jesuitical Charuns and minstrel Bhâts, avaricious Mewatties, restless and depraved Soondies,† well-trained fighting Arabs and Patans,‡ commercial Bringaries and Loodanahs,§ aboriginal Gonds,‖ monkish Kapriyas¶ and in fine tribes of Sours, Baugries, Moghies, Googurs, Gwarriahs,** &c., too numerous and diversified to depict, and presenting, if not a similar number of languages, a corresponding diversity of dialects and a complete distinction in manners, customs, and occupations.

Nothing is more natural than to expect among so many millions of people spread over so varied a country a marked distinction of character; have we not endless variety in climates, in soils, in waters, in minerals, in vegetables, in fish, in insects, in birds, and quadrupeds, subject to certain defined laws of the Creator, and influenced by natural causes? Why should it be otherwise with the human race, who in colour, physiognomy, stature, speech, gesture, habits, and mental as well as physical peculiarities present, such an extraordinary diversity, that no two persons were ever found alike?††

* The retail and petty dealing in central India is in the hands of the Bunnias.

† Illegitimate descendants of the Rajpoots, looked on by other tribes with disgust for their numerous and habitual vices.

‡ The Arabs and Patans are mercenary soldiers, and, like their European Swiss brethren, ready to fight for those who pay them best.

§ These people live in tents, have no home, and trade generally in grain, with which they travel from country to country, or follow the route of armies, who in their fiercest contests, consider these valuable attendants as neutrals: they preserve a marked separation and independence of other races, and their dress and usages are peculiar.

‖ The Gonds, who may be considered the aborigines of the S. part of India, *and who bear a striking resemblance to the African negro,* still continue to offer human sacrifices where they are not subject to our control.

¶ Similar in habits and rules to the Dominician friars.

** The Gwarriahs live by stealing women and children to sell.

†† While travelling in different countries, I made a collection of the skulls of different nations (the greater part of the collection I had the pleasure of presenting to the Asiatic Society Museum, at Calcutta, where

Even in the same family, we see no two individuals having similar characteristics, notwithstanding all the efforts of edu-

they may now be seen), and it is exceedingly curious to observe what a marked configuration the crania of diverse people exhibit, even among nations with scarcely a perceptible natural boundary between them. The most striking example noticed was the difference between the Bengallee and the Burmese: the skull of the *former* possesses a greater occipital protuberance than that of any people I have ever met; it is, in fact, *semi-globular*, and the whole skull extraordinarily small, divested of any angular or rugged projections, and of remarkably thin laminæ (these observations are founded on the examination of hundreds of the Bengallee skulls): the cranium of the *latter* (Burmese) possesses what I have never found in any other nation —a *perfectly flat* occipital bone; so much so, that a Burmese skull will rest on a broader and firmer base when placed with the face upwards, than in any other position. As if to compensate for the flatness of the occipital bone, the parietal or side walls of the skull bulge out in an extraordinary manner; the brain case (unlike the Hindoo's) is very large, and the laminæ extraordinarily thick. Among my Burmese specimens were the mutilated skulls of Burmese soldiers, found near Rangoon, some of which were clove in twain by the prowess of British soldiers. On another occasion, I will trace the characters of nations, as exemplified in the mental shield. (For a measurement of the crania and skeletons of a male and female New Hollander, see Vol. IV., New South Wales.)

Since the first edition of this volume went to press, that distinguished Brahmin, (or rather Hindoo) Rajah Rammohun Roy, died near Bristol, afar from the land of his birth, and without kith or kin to hear his last prayer. I knew the Rajah well, having lived for some months with him at his Garden House, near Calcutta. He had his faults (who has not?); but they were more than counterbalanced by his virtues. Immediately on his demise, a cast was taken of his head (which was not only of a very unusual size for a Hindoo, but even for the generality of Englishmen), for the purpose of promoting phrenological inquiry. I give the details (as I have the ostrological measurement of the New Hollanders in my fourth volume), for the purpose of stimulating to further inquiry on so interesting a subject.

DIMENSIONS, IN INCHES, OF THE SKULL OF THE LATE RAMMOHUN ROY, FROM A CAST TAKEN WHILE THE BODY WAS YET WARM.*

Greatest circumference of head, measuring horizontally over individuality, destructiveness, and philo-progenitiveness, 24¼; from *occipital*

* In stating the actual dimensions of the head, allowance has been made for the hair.

cation we find a difference in moral qualities, as well as in mental capabilities; in hand-writing even, in the intonation of the voice, in gait, in animal propensities,—and this distinction

spine to *individuality*, over top of the head, 15; *ear* to *ear*, vertically over top of the head, measuring from upper margin of the *meatus*, 14⅜; *philo-progenitiveness* to *individuality*, in a straight line, 8⅜; *concentrativeness* to *comparison*, 7⅞; *ear* to *philo-progenitiveness*, 4⅜; to *individuality*, 5⅜; to *benevolence*, 6⅝; to *veneration*, 6⅜; to *firmness*, 6½; *destructiveness* to *destructiveness*, 6¼; *secretiveness* to *secretiveness*, 6¼; *cautiousness* to *cautiousness*, 5¼; *ideality* to *ideality*, 4½; *constructiveness* to *constructiveness*, 5⅜; *mastoid process* to *mastoid process*, 5¾.

Developement.—(1) Amativeness very large; (2) philo-progenitiveness rather large; (3) concentrativeness full; (4) adhesiveness large; (5) combativeness large; (6) destructiveness large; (7) secretiveness large; (8) acquisitiveness full; (9) constructiveness rather full; (10) self-esteem very large; (11) love of approbation ditto; (12) cautiousness large; (13) benevolence ditto; (14) veneration full; (15) firmness very large; (16) conscientiousness ditto; (17) hope full; (18) wonder rather full; (19) ideality ditto; (20) wit or mirthfulness ditto; (21) imitation rather large; (22) individuality ditto; (23) form full; (24) size rather large; (25) weight ditto; (26) colouring full; (27) locality rather large; (28) number moderate; (29) order rather full; (30) eventuality full; (31) time full; (32) tune moderate; (33) language rather large; (34) comparison ditto; (35) causality ditto.

Having had an intimate acquaintance with Rammohun Roy, and possessing, from his own lips and those of his confidents, a knowledge of circumstances which, he did not think proper to reveal in the scanty materials of his life that he furnished, I may with confidence state that phrenological science is not in danger from the '*developement*' of the animal portion of the brain; but in the mental developement there are not only contradictions, but positive negatives. From No. 1 to 6, his passions were powerful, on occasion, in some instances, uncontrollable, and with difficulty subjected to his extraordinary masculine understanding; his *benevolence* was not merely *large*, but very largely in activity; he had no *order* in any domestic concern, and the only symptom of it observable was in the construction of his sentences in writing: *language* is described as '*rather large;*' in reality it was very remarkable—he understood a variety of tongues thoroughly, and acquired them with facility: *caution* is described only as *large;* if a deep concealment of motives, not unfrequently degenerating into cunning, be *caution*, no man possessed it more than Rammohun Roy, whose *veneration* nevertheless for a Supreme Being was not merely *full*, but unbounded.

becomes the more marked, if we compare two brothers with the nation of which they form a part, while a wider line of demarcation is seen on comparing the people of a province with those of other and distant climes. That I may the better exemplify my assertion as to the variety of British subjects in India, I request a moment's attention to Italy, where the climate and soil is so varied. In that classic land, we have the descendants of a race of men as ancient in record as the Hindoos; but (as in Hindostan) the inhabitants of the north, are essentially different from those of the south, the former produces the best soldiers (Rajpoots) the latter the keenest politicians, (Bengallees) the people of the one are industrious, peaceful, of tamer manners, or if I may so express my meaning, *domesticated;* those of the other, of a wild and stormy temper, generous but revengeful, capable of the most heroic as well as the basest deeds, of an uncultivated genius, and impatient of discipline; whence then this marked contrast in Italy? (a country so small compared with Hindostan) the political institutes, the religion, the language is common to all, but the *climate and soil are essentially different.*

The N. of Italy is a fertile, champagne country, intersected by numerous rivers, cultivated to an astonishing degree, covered with wide and level roads, never ending avenues, and thickly-populated towns and villages, with a highly luxuriant but dull and sleepy landscape; (this description might serve for lower Bengal) the S. is crowned with purple tinged mountains and golden edged clouds, diversified with stupendous and sometimes inaccessible crags, foaming torrents, cashmerian vales, wild but beautiful forests, and a scenery which presents the most splendid pictures at every step; (those who have visited many parts of the highlands of India will recognise the same features as in southern Italy). Is it to be wondered that the character of men inhabiting such different countries should be dissimilar? Hence in the low, hot, and damp swampy regions of India, we have a timid, pacific, commercial, phlegmatic, and even servile race; educated, but

prone to superstition, tyrants over females, yet addicted to compliments, and extravagant in all the littleness attending on the ceremonials of behaviour; while in the elevated, dry, and cool regions of our possessions in Asia, the inhabitants are fearlessly brave, filled with martial ardour, chivalrous to women, courteous to strangers, glorying in deeds of heroism, sanguine in their atchievements, desperate enemies and warm friends,—as individuals,—serfs, yet proud, in the aggregate of national independence, at all times ready to reject the pen and the ploughshare for the sword and the war steed, and, as justly expressed by the noble bard,—

> "Who for itself can seek th' approaching fight,
> And turn what some deem danger to delight;
> Who seek what cravens shun with more than zeal,
> And where the feebler faint can only feel.—
> Feel to the rising bosom's inmost core,
> Their hopes awaken and their spirits soar;
> No dread of death if with them die their foes,
> Save that it seems even duller than repose!"

Such in fact is the varied character of the nations of Hindostan, hence the discrepant testimony of various witnesses who have only judged of the portion of the people among whom their avocations may have located them for a number of years; one party extolling them to the skies as exhibiting patterns of every virtue which adorns man,—the other representing them as a slavish, lying, cruel, treacherous, unprincipled and ungrateful race. Truth in this, as in most other instances, lies between the extremes; the Hindoos (independent of the effects of climate, soil, and food*) display the terribly demoralizing results which centuries of despotism are so surely calculated to produce. 'Tis true they have not had iron fetters on their wrists and ankles like the slaves in the West Indies, but they have had for ages fetters on the mind far more efficacious for the debasement of the immortal spirit of man,—

* Those Hindoos who, though professing the religion of Menu, live in some degree on animal food, are a very different class of people from those who live principally on vegetables.

———"Is there no tyranny but that
Of blood and chains? The despotism of vice—
The weakness and wickedness of luxury—
The negligence, the apathy, the evils
Of sensual sloth produce ten thousand tyrants,
Whose delegated cruelty surpasses
The worst acts of one energetic master,
However hard and harsh in his own bearing."

But those who have studied minutely and extensively the characters of the Hindoos, will admit that they have prejudices to be humoured, affections to be won, passions to be dreaded, and virtues to be cherished and developed.* Since

* The contempt which most, if not all, the different races in India manifest for the fears of death is very remarkable; it may be said that fanaticism is the exciting cause; but it should be remembered that, wherever a British officer leads, his Sepoy troops will follow, and numerous instances have occurred where the Hindoo artillerymen have been cut down at their guns rather than desert them; the gallant manner in which the natives will, single-handed, and armed only with a long knife, attack the most furious tiger for a trifling reward, has been often described, and needs not recapitulation; but their agility and bravery in voluntarily encountering a formidable shark in his native element, for the sake of a few shillings, is not so well known. An illustration of this fact, as it occurred when I was in Calcutta, in 1830, may be here given:—The boat was on its progress down the Hooghly, when a huge shark was seen swimming round it,—a Hindoo prepared to attack it on receiving a small reward for his dexterity; holding the rope, on which he had made a sort of running knot, in one hand, and stretching out the other arm, as if already in the act of swimming, stood in an attitude, truly picturesque, waiting the re-appearance of the shark. At about 6 or 8 yards from the boat the animal rose near the surface, when the native instantly plunged into the water, a short distance from the very jaws of the monster. The shark immediately turned round, and swam slowly towards the man, who, in his turn, nothing daunted, struck out the arm that was at liberty, and approached his foe. When within a foot or two of the shark, the native dived beneath him—the animal going down almost at the same instant. The bold assailant in this frightful contest soon re-appeared on the opposite side of the shark, swimming fearlessly with the hand he had at liberty, and holding the rope behind his back with the other. The shark, which had also by this time made his appearance again, immediately swam towards him; and while the animal was apparently in the act of lifting himself over the lower part of the native's

the conquest of India by England, the British rulers have been carefully annihilating a chain of feudalism which ever marks an age of barbarism; society which heretofore consisted of only two classes, is now being levelled, by the removal of the slavish dependence of the low upon the higher castes, and millions of human beings are now for the first time learning to know their own worth, and to be conscious that by industry, talent, and integrity, they may elevate themselves to the foremost rank in society; human sacrifices have been abolished, infanticide materially checked, and the horrid rite of female cremation completely prohibited; those palladiums of liberty, the press and trial by jury are being gradually extended; the natives sit on the judgment seat and fill the magisterial chair: and if common justice be done them in their commercial dealings with England, (and no insane attempt be made to interfere with their religious principles before couching them for the moral cataract which yet dims their mental vision,) the future may be looked forward to with glowing anticipations; but when we witness the powerful opposition that even yet exists to the abolition of the diabolical rite of widow-burning among the Hindoo population (remembering that the proportion of Europeans to Asiatics in India, is as *one* to *five thousand!* and of Mahomedans to Hindoos as *one* to *ten*) let us beware not to proceed too fast, let us temper benevolence

body, that he might seize upon his prey, the man making a strong effort, threw himself up perpendicularly, and went down with his feet foremost—the shark following him so simultaneously that we were fully impressed with the idea that they had gone down grappling together. As far as could be judged, they remained nearly twenty seconds out of sight, while we stood in breathless anxiety—and it may be added horror, waiting the result of this fearful encounter. Suddenly the native made his appearance holding up both his hands over his head, and calling out with a voice that proclaimed the victory he had won, while underneath the wave,—'*tan—tan!*' The people in the boat were all prepared—the rope was instantly drawn tight, and the struggling victim, lashing the water in his wrath, was dragged to the shore and dispatched. This truly intrepid man received only a cut on the left arm, apparently from the fin of his formidable enemy.

with prudence, principle with policy, and justice with expediency.

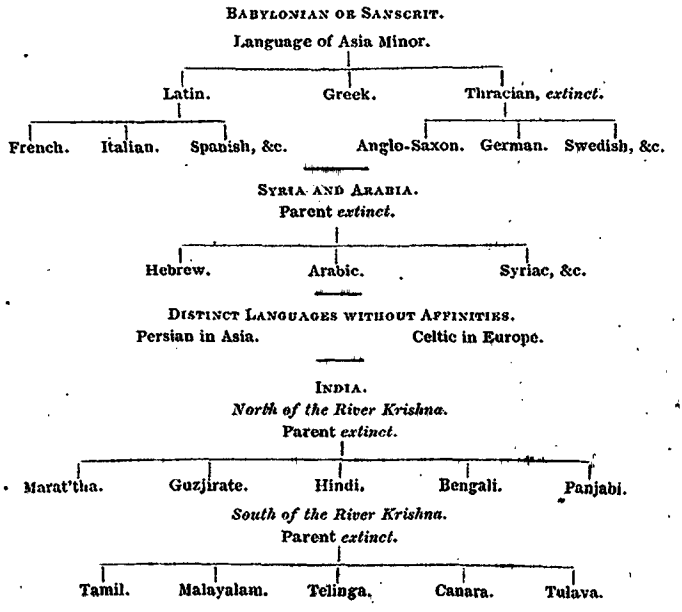
Sir Thomas Munro has placed on record a minute which has reference to the precipitancy of some of our measures in in 1824, he says, 'Our experience is too short to judge what rules are best calculated for this purpose. It is only within the last 30 years that we have here begun to acquire any practical knowledge. A longer period must probably elapse before we can ascertain what is best. Such a period is as nothing in the existence of a people; but we act as if this were as limited as the life of an individual." With regard to precipitation he has this observation: "One great error in this country, during a long course of years has been too much *precipitation* in attempting to *better* the *condition of the people* with hardly any knowledge of the means by which it was to be accomplished, and indeed without seeming to think that any other than good intentions were necessary. It is a dangerous system of government, in a country of which our knowledge is very imperfect, to be constantly urged by the desire of settling everything permanently, to do everything *in a hurry*, and in *consequence* wrong: and in our zeal for permanency, to put the remedy out of our reach. The ruling vice of our government is innovation, and its innovation has been so little guided by a knowledge of the people, that although made after what was thought by us to be mature discussion, must appear to them as little better than the result of mere caprice. We have in our anxiety to make every thing as English as possible, in a country which resembles England in nothing, attempted to create at once, throughout extensive provinces, a kind of landed property which had never existed in them." These, indeed, are profound truths.

LANGUAGE.—As may be expected among so great a variety of people, several languages are in use; the modern spoken dialects are thus enumerated—Hindustany, Bengalese, Cashmerian, Dogura, Ooch, Sindy, Cutch, Gugeratty, Concancese, Punjaby, Bicanere, Marwar, Jeypoor, Odeypoor, Harowty, Malwa, Broach, Bundlecundy, Mahratta, Magadha, Koshala,

Maithala, Nepaulese, Orissa, Telinga, Carnata and Tamul: but in fact (in the upper provinces of Bengal for instance) the languages of the body of the population are so little settled that it would be extremely difficult to translate the Regulations of Government into any language that would be understood by them unless a separate translation were made for every district.

The celebrated Sanscrit is not enumerated in the foregoing list, it having long ceased to be a spoken tongue, from the extraordinary perfection to which it has been matured. That it is the parent of so many Eastern tongues or dialects is not to be wondered at when we find that to all present appearance it is the *parent* of all the existing languages in the world, it being more readily decompounded—retraced to its roots, or reduced to simple elements, and from its possessing the unique feature of an absence of exotic terms. Colonel Vans Kennedy, of the Bombay army, in his elaborate work on the Origin and Affinity of the Languages of Asia and Europe, thus assigns the

FILIATION OF LANGUAGES.



The Sanscrit apparently forms the basis of most of the dialects now spoken in the northern parts of India, especially of the Bengali, the Hindoostani, the Mahratti, &c.; but it is entirely distinct from the Tamul, or *Tamil*, which occupies nearly as conspicuous a rank among the languages of the Dekkan as the Sanscrit does among those of the northern provinces. The Tamul language, spoken by a population of more than four millions, is current in the southern portion of the peninsula of India, throughout the Jaghire, the districts of South Arcot, Salem, Coimbatoor, Combaconum, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Dindigal, and Tinivelly, as well as in many parts of the extensive kingdom of Mysore. It is said not to be derived from any language at present in existence, being either itself the parent of the Teloogoo, Malayâlam, and Canarese languages; or, more probably, having its origin in common with these in some ancient tongue, which is now lost, or only partially preserved in its offspring. In its more primitive words, such as the names of natural objects, the verbs expressive of physical action or passion, the numerals, &c. it is quite unconnected with the Sanscrit; and what is thence so largely borrowed, when the Tamuls, by intercourse with the more enlightened people of the north, began to emerge from barbarity, has reference to the expression of moral sentiments and abstract metaphysical notions, and is chiefly to be found in the colloquial idiom. In this remarkable circumstance, and also in the construction of its alphabet, the Tamul differs much from other languages of the S. which are found to admit Sanscrit more largely in literary compositions than in conversation, and which adopt the arrangement of the Sanscrit alphabet with little variation.

Bengali is spoken by about 30,000,000 people in lower Bengal—and the Hindostani by about 20,000,000 in N. and W. India.

The three principal languages of southern India are the Teloogoo, the Tamul, and the Carnatica. The first is spoken in the provinces to the northward of Madras; the second to the southward; the third to the westward, or the table land

above the passes of the mountains; and also in some districts below the Ghauts, on the western side of the Peninsula."

Efforts are now in progress in India, and in some instances adopted by Government, of representing in Roman characters the principal Asiatic characters—such as Bengallee, Persian, Nagrie, &c. The different classes of letters (gutturals, nasals, &c.) are discriminated by distinctions and marks. The English language (see Education chapter) is now being widely extended.

APPEARANCE AND STATURE OF THE HINDOOS.*—The stature, complexion, and physiognomy of the Hindoos are so different that no general picture can represent the various dissimilar races which compose the body of the people. Among the Rajpoots and mountaineers of the north are frequently found men of gigantic stature and Herculean proportions, who would be considered remarkable in any country in Europe for their size and muscular power. Colonel Tod says, 'Gokul Das, the last chief (of Deoghur) was one of the finest men he ever beheld in feature and person. He was about six feet six, perfectly erect, and a Hercules in bulk. His father at twenty was much larger, and must have been nearly seven feet high.' In general, the inhabitants of the plains are inferior in height, and of a more slender make; but both the latter and the former are in general of an agile, graceful form, and capable of enduring considerable fatigue. Few deformed persons are seen,—but, from various causes, blindness is not uncommon. The complexion of the people, according to climate and circumstances, varies from a dark olive, approaching to black, to a light, transparent, beautiful brown, with an olive tinge, resembling that of the natives of northern Italy or Provence; but the mind being so well disciplined, the countenance seldom betrays the fiery passions which are at work within. The face of the Hindoo is oval; forehead moderately large and high; eyes and hair black; eyebrows finely turned, and nose and mouth of an European cast; the look is calm, placid, and prepossessing, with no-

* An interesting popular little work, published by Mr. Knight, entitled the *Hindoos*, has furnished me with a several collected observations.

thing of the sinister aspect of the Malay, or the impassioned expression of the Persian or Arab. The women, when not exposed to the air, or stunted by severe labour, are often possessed of extraordinary beauty, the form being delicate and graceful; limbs finely tapered and rounded; features mild; eyes dark and languishing; hair fine and long; and skins remarkably polished and soft. The Hindoo women of the Brahminical caste bear away the palm of loveliness, more particularly those of the Canara and Malabar coasts. The beauties of form attributed to their countrywomen in general are found in a still higher degree of perfection in them. The contour of the neck and shoulders is exceedingly lovely, the bosom beautifully formed; the limbs slender, but exquisitely moulded: the feet and hands delicately small; their air and motions easy, graceful, and dignified. Nor are the beauties of the countenance inferior to those of the figure. The face is of the finest oval, like the Greek; the nose long and straight; the lips ruddy, and the upper one beautifully curved; the mouth rather small; the chin round, and, in most cases, dimpled *amoris digitulo*. The eyes, shaded by long dark lashes, and surmounted by finely arched slender eyebrows, are full, black, humid, sparkling with fire, yet neither wanton nor petulant.* No women can be more attentive, says Forbes, to cleanliness than the Hindoos, 'they take every method to render their persons delicate, soft, and attractive.'

Costume of the Hindoos.—Their dress is peculiarly becoming; in the higher classes it consists of a long piece of silk or cotton, tied round the waist, afterwards brought over the body in negligent folds, and hanging in a graceful manner to the feet; under this they cover the bosom with a short waistcoat of silk or satin, but wear no linen. Their long black hair is adorned with jewels and wreaths of flowers; their ears are bored in many places, and loaded with pearls; a variety of gold chains, strings of pearl and precious stones fall from the neck over the bosom, and the arms are covered with bracelets from the wrists to the elbow; they have also gold

* Bory de Saint-Vincent, Essai Zoologique sur le Genre Humain, tom. i. p. 226, 228.

and silver chains round the ancles, and abundance of rings on their fingers and toes; among the former is frequently a small mirror. Forbes thinks the richer the dress the less becoming it appears, a Hindoo woman of distinction always appearing to be overloaded with finery; while the village nymphs, with fewer ornaments, but in the same elegant drapery, are more captivating; although there are very few women, even of the lowest families, who have not some jewels at their marriage.*

The same writer, describing the village of Harasar, celebrated for the sanctity of its temple and the beauty of its women, observes that their jetty locks were adorned with jewels, while their garment, which consisted of a long single piece of silk or muslin, put on in graceful folds, fell like the drapery of a Grecian statue.† Various fashions prevail, however, in different parts of India. In the kingdom of Attinga, on the Malabar coast, the women go uncovered from the waist upwards. It is thought indecent to do otherwise; and Grose tells a story, which was afterwards confirmed to Forbes upon the spot, of a Malabar woman, who, living with an English lady at Anjengo, to please her mistress, dressed in the European fashion, but appearing afterwards in the queen of Attinga's presence with her breasts covered, the barbarous despot ordered them to be cut off, for what she was pleased to consider so signal a mark of disrespect.‡ It is not the inferior classes merely who dress thus sparingly; the greatest princesses are clothed in the same style, and only differ from their slaves by wearing a more transparent muslin and a greater profusion of jewels. Even where persons are accustomed, as they are in several of the southern provinces of the Peninsula, to wear clothing on the upper part of the body, the rules of politeness require, even in women, that they shall uncover the shoulders and breast when addressing any person whom they respect, whether

* Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 74. † Ibid. p. 190, 191.

‡ Grose, Voyage to the East Indies; Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 391.

male or female.* It was the breach of this rule of good-breeding by the Malabar woman that roused the anger of the female despot of Attinga.

The kind of tissue which, in the south, forms the sole garment of the Brahmini women, is only used in female dress. It is usually from eight to ten yards in length, and about a yard broad, of every variety of quality and colour, with a border of different hue at each extremity. This is wrapped twice or three times round the body, and forms a kind of petticoat, which in front falls as low as the feet, but behind does not reach lower than the calf of the leg, and sometimes not so low. One end of this long web is fastened at the waist, the other, in many districts, passes over the head, shoulders, and breasts; but this is an innovation. The primitive fashion, throughout the Peninsula, required the women always to appear naked to the girdle.†

In Malabar the dress of the women is quite similar to that of the men. Their black, glossy hair, tied in a knot on the middle of the head, is copiously anointed with cocoa-nut oil, and perfumed with the essence of sandal, mogrees, and champahs; their ears, loaded with rings and heavy jewels, reach almost to their shoulders; this is esteemed a beauty. Instead of a small gold wire in the orifice, as is practised in other countries, the incision is filled with a filament from the cocoa-nut leaf, rolled round; the circles are increased until the orifice sometimes exceeds two inches in diameter, the ear is then healed, and being stretched to the perfection of beauty, is filled with rings and massy ornaments. Round the waist they wear a loose piece of muslin, while the bosom is entirely exposed; this is the only drapery of the Malabar women: but they are adorned with a profusion of gold and silver chains for necklaces, mixed with strings of Venetian and other gold coins; they have also heavy bangles, or bracelets; a silver box, suspended by a chain on one side, forms a principal ornament, and contains the areca or betel-nut, with its appen-

* Dubois, Description of the Manners, &c. of the People of India, p. 211.
† Ibid. p. 220, 221.

dages of chunam, spice, and betel-leaf. Their skin is softened by aromatic oils, especially among the Nairs and Tetees, who are peculiarly attentive to cleanliness in their persons.*

The female Portuguese Christians in Calcutta wear a petticoat and loose body made of muslin and silk, trimmed with lace, while their long black hair is turned up *à la Grecque*, and fastened with gold ornaments. The Malay girls' costume is somewhat similar, with sometimes the addition of long, flowing, white veils.

In Northern India, where the power and example of the Mohammedans have operated so many other changes in the manners of the Hindoos, even the national costume has undergone various modifications. Here the dress of the women consists of a close jacket with sleeves, which, in some instances, reach no farther than the elbow, in others, cover even the tops of the fingers. This jacket, fitting tight to the shape, and showing to advantage the beauty of the form, with women of rank is made of rich silk. Instead of drawers, some ladies,' says Abul Fasel, wear a *lengha*, stitched on both sides, and fastened with a belt, which appears to be a short underpetticoat; no chemise. Over the lengha is worn the common shalice, or petticoat. Some ladies wear veils and long drawers.'†

The costume of a northern mountaineer, inhabiting those parts of the Himalaya where the manners of the Hindoos and Tatars appear to mingle and slide into each other, is of course different. 'An *Uniya* woman,' says Mr. Moorcroft, 'wife of one of the goatherds, very good-naturedly filled the water-vessels of those persons who came to the little well, and did not take up her own part till the different candidates for water received the quantity which they asked for. She had rather a pleasing countenance, was of middle stature, and about 35 years old. There was much of curiosity in her looks at seeing us, but nothing of fear or impertinence. Her dress was woollen, and of the same form with that of the men. Her

* Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 390.

† Ayeen Akberry, vol. ii. p. 521.

boots were likewise woollen, and much diversified by patches of various hues. Her hair, which was of a deep black, was plaited in tresses from the forehead down to below the waist, where the plaits, to the number of fifty, after each being terminated by a cowrie shell, were assembled in a band of leather, which was tipped with a tassel of red worsted thread. Her head-lappet, if I may so name it, was of leather, and extended from the forehead down the back to the waist, but in the latter part gradually ended in a point; at the forehead it was bordered with silver, and from this rim hung seven rows of coral beads, each row consisting of five, which were terminated by seven silver *timáshás*, that played upon the forehead. The crown of the lappet was studded with small pearls, distributed in seven rows, and the lower part was decorated with green stones, something like turquoises, but marbled with coral beads, and many bands of silver and of a yellow metal, probably gold, about a finger's breadth. A stiff band of leather, something like a soldier's collar, was placed loosely round her neck, and ornamented with five rows of coral beads. The collar was secured with a button and clasp of silver. In her left ear was a coral bead set in silver, and in her right were two smaller beads in the same material. On her right thumb she wore a square gold ring, with characters engraved on the table.'*

In Rajast'han, and throughout the N.W. provinces, the costume varies in each district and tribe, though the materials of dress are everywhere the same; in summer cotton, in winter quilted chintz or broadcloth. The ladies have only three garments; 'the *ghagra*, or petticoat; the *kanchli*, or corset; and the *dopati*, or scarf, which is occasionally thrown over the head as a veil.† Tattooing, which may be regarded as a kind of substitute for dress, has not yet wholly disappeared in India. The Hindoo women, in many parts of the country, paint various figures, chiefly of flowers, on the arms, chin, and cheeks of their daughters. This is effected, as among

* Asiatic Researches, vol. xii. p. 422, 423.

† Colonel Tod, Annals of Rajast'han, vol. ii. p. 651.

the South Sea islanders, by making with the point of a needle, slight punctures in the skin, over which the juice of certain plants is then poured; and thus the figures become ineffaceable.* Many Brahmini women dye their whole bodies, or, at least, so much of them as is uncovered, with a saffron-coloured infusion, which, instead of increasing their beauty, renders them frightful, at least, in the eyes of Europeans. The young and beautiful attempt to increase the dark lustre of their eyes by the use of *surmeh*, or powder of antimony, that famous collyrium which played so conspicuous a part in the toilette of the Grecian ladies. The ladies of Hindostan moreover paint with black the border of the eye-lids, and prolong the eye-lashes and eye-brows at the corners, while the hair is adorned with sweet-scented flowers, and ornaments of gold.

The ornaments of the Hindoo women are rich and numerous. Every toe has its particular ring, so broad above as frequently to conceal the whole toe. Their bracelets are sometimes large hollow rings of gold, more than an inch in diameter, while others wear them flat, and more than two inches in breadth. Round their necks are suspended several chains of gold or silver, or strings of gold, pearl, coral, or glass beads. Many ladies have collars of gold, an inch broad, set with rubies, topazes, emeralds, carbuncles, or diamonds; besides an ornament for the forehead set with jewels; earrings, of which there are no less than 18 species; nose jewels; necklaces; strings of flowers or pearls; belts ornamented with little bells and jewels; and numerous other ornaments of the same costly kind.†

The dress of the men, in which there are neither buttons, strings, nor pins, is admirably adapted to the climate, and produces a very graceful effect. It differs, however, but little, in many parts of the country, from that of the women. The shoes worn by the rich are embroidered with gold or silver thread, open at the heels, and curled up at the toes.

* Dubois, Description, &c. p. 221. They likewise, as do also the Arabs, dye their fingers, the palms of their hands, and the soles of their feet with *henna*.

† See Ayeen Akbery, vol ii. p. 521, 522.

Few persons wear stockings.* Turbans are sometimes worn by the Brahmins, and very commonly by all other persons of the superior classes. The head and beard are generally shaved, but mustachios are worn, and a small lock of hair is usually left upon the crown. A *jáma*, or long gown of white calico, confined round the waist with a fringed or embroidered sash, replaces the simple robe of the Eastern Provinces; and the princes and nobles adorn their persons with necklaces of pearl and golden chains, sustaining clusters of costly gems; while their turbans are crusted with diamonds, rubies, and emeralds. Their golden bracelets are likewise set thick with gems. The shoes are of red leather, or English broadcloth. In the ears they wear, like the women, large gold rings, which pass through two pearls or rubies. Both sexes are greatly addicted to the use of *attar*, and other perfumes.†

In Northern India another variety of costume is found. Here the garments of the men consist of 'trowsers of every shape and calibre, a tunic girded with a ceinture, and a scarf, form the wardrobe of every Rajpoot. The turban is the most important part of the dress, and is the unerring mark of the tribe; the form and fashion are various, and its decorations differ, according to time and circumstances. The *bala-bund*, or silken fillet, was once valued as the mark of the sovereign's favour, and was tantamount to the courtly 'orders' of Europe. The colour of the turban and tunic varies with the seasons; and the changes are rung upon crimson, saffron, and purple, though white, is by far the most common. Their shoes are mere slippers, and sandals are worn by the common classes. Boots are used in hunting and war, made of chamois leather, of which material the warrior often has a doublet, being more commodious and less oppressive than armour. The dagger, or poniard is inseparable from the girdle.‡ At Calcutta, and the other Presidencies, the inhabitants are ap-

* Ward, View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. i. p. 186, 187

† Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 70, 71, 83.

‡ Colonel Tod, vol. ii. p. 652.

proximating towards the dress of Europeans, with the exception of the hat.

The *paita*, or thread of investiture, supposed to belong to the three superior castes, is sometimes worn indiscriminately by all: this, therefore, being no distinction, the Brahmins resort to other means of making known their rank. Those of the N. of the peninsula are distinguished by a perpendicular line, drawn with the paste of sandal-wood on the middle of the forehead; in the farming districts this line is drawn horizontally, and the Vishnuite Brahmins, who are exceedingly numerous in all the S. of India, imprint on their forehead three perpendicular lines, joined at the base, and thus representing the figure of a trident. Of these three lines the middle one is red or yellow, while those on the side are white, and being drawn with a kind of clay, called *nama*, this has grown by degrees to be considered the name of the figure itself. The mark of the Sivaïtes is the Lingam, which they either wear stuck in the hair, or suspended to the arm, in a small golden or silver tube: it is also worn suspended by a ribbon from the neck, like the *bulla* of the Roman youth, which was frequently of the same form; or else it is enclosed in a silver box which hangs upon the bosom.*

Dwellings.—The houses of the rich, in most parts of India, are built of brick, and, like a caravanserai, run round the four sides of a quadrangle. On the N. (the sacred point of the Hindoos) stands the family chapel, which contains the household god. The other three sides are occupied by porticoes and apartments for the family. The windows of these apartments are mere air-holes, through which the women may be seen peeping as through the gratings of a jail. During the great festivals, an awning is extended over the whole court, (as is the fashion, in Arabia and different parts of Africa); and here the common people are admitted, while those of superior rank occupy the verandahs. The dwellings of the middle classes are constructed in the same style, but with different materials; the walls being of mud, the roofs of

* Dubois, Description, &c. p. 9, 48, 51, 57. Antiquitates Middletonianæ.

bamboo and thatch. A low mud-built hut, containing but one room, is the usual dwelling of the poor in Bengal.*

In the S. of India the poor build their huts of a reddish ferruginous clay intermixed with small fragments of quartz, and other materials of decayed granite, forming walls, which, with ordinary care, will resist the rains for many years. In many towns and villages the houses have flat roofs terraced with this mud, which is laid on in the dry season, and turns the rain very well. The buildings erected with this clay have a very tolerable appearance, the surface of the walls being neatly smoothed, and, like the houses of the ancient cities of Italy and France, painted with alternate vertical stripes of red and white. These huts are in the form of a parallelogram, without chimneys or windows. The rich, instead of enlarging the house, merely erect several huts in the same style.† In many cases the rooms are white-washed within, and the houses roofed with tiles. They are in general clean, and, had they any windows, would be comfortable. In Malabar the huts, called *chera*, are like bee-hives, and consist of a circular mud wall about three feet high, which is covered with a long conical roof of thatch. Contrary to what might have been expected in a hot climate, but agreeable to the custom of almost all Hindoos, one small door is the only outlet for smoke, and the only inlet for air and light. Each family has a hut for sleeping, another for cooking, and a third for a storehouse. Wealthy men add more huts to their premises; but seldom attempt at any innovation in the architecture of the country.‡

The *agrarums*, or *grâmas*, villages occupied by the *Puttar* Brahmins in Malabar, are remarkable for their taste. 'The houses are built contiguous, in straight streets; and they are among the neatest and cleanest villages to be seen in India. The beauty, cleanliness, and elegant dress of the girls of the Brahmins add much to the look of these places. Their

* Ward, View of the History, &c. vol. i. p. 192.

† Journey through the Mysore, &c. vol. i. p. 33, 38.

‡ Ibid. vol. ii. p. 192.

greatest defect is, that the houses are thatched with palm-leaves, which never can be made to lie close, and which render them very liable to fires. The houses of the Namburis, Nairs, and other wealthy persons, are much better than those usually met with in the villages of India. They are built of mud, so as generally to occupy two sides of a square area, that is a little raised, and kept smooth, clean, and free from grass. The mud is of an excellent quality, and in general is neatly smoothed, and either whitewashed or painted.

In other parts of Malabar the houses are two stories high, built with stone, and thatched with cocoa-nut leaves. Windows also, though very diminutive ones, are more common on this coast than in any other parts of India.* The kitchen is always situated in the part of the house least accessible to strangers, whose very look, according to the prejudices of the natives, would pollute their earthen vessels, and compel them to break them. The position of the hearth is generally on the S.W. side of the dwelling, because, in their opinion, the dwelling of the god of fire is in that quarter: a peculiar divinity presides over each of the eight points of the compass. It not being customary for men, unless they happen to be near relations, to visit the female part of the family, to avoid the necessity of introducing strangers into the apartments where they are usually occupied with household affairs, verandahs or alcoves are constructed both within and without the principal gate of entrance; in these the men assemble, and sitting cross-legged on the floor, converse on business, religion, politics, receive visitors, "or pass their time in empty talk."†

Somerset House, the British Museum, the Louvre, and many other places and houses both in England and France, represent exactly, in point of form, the common dwellings of the wealthy Hindoos, whether they be erected of stone or of mud. Even in Rajpootana the same style prevails. The mansions of the Rajpoots, Col. Tod observes, are quadran-

* Buchanan, Journey, vol. iii. p. 99.

† Dubois, *ubi supra.*

gular piles, with an open paved area, the suites of apartments carried round the sides, with latticed or open corridors extending parallel to each suite. The residence of the Rana of Oodipoor might not, perhaps, lose greatly by a comparison with Windsor Castle; and is very much superior, both in taste and magnificence, to the Chateau of the Tuileries. 'The palace is a most imposing pile, of a regular form, built of granite and marble, rising at least a hundred feet from the ground, and flanked with octagonal towers, crowned with cupolas. Although built at various periods, uniformity of design has been very well preserved; nor is there in the E. a more striking or more majestic spectacle. It stands on the very crest of a ridge running parallel to, but considerably elevated above, the margin of the lake. The terrace, which is at the E. end and chief front of the palace, extends throughout its length, and is supported by a triple row of arches from the declivity of the ridge. The height of this arcaded wall is full 50 feet; and although all is hollow beneath, yet so admirably is it constructed, that an entire range of stables is built on the extreme verge of the terrace, on which the whole personal force of the Rana, elephants, horse, and foot, are often assembled. From this terrace the city and the valley lie before the spectator, whose vision is bounded only by the hills shutting out the plains, while from the summit of the palace nothing obstructs its range over lake and mountain.'*

In several districts of Rajpootana the houses are built with a red sandstone, and, wood being scarce and dear, have likewise roofs of stone, which are supported by numerous slender pillars. The façade, in many instances, is coated with marble chunam; and the whole surrounded by a flower-garden, intersected by neat stone channels, through which the water is conducted, for irrigation, from a tank. Bishop Heber, describing one of these gardens, observes; 'some of the trees were of great size and beauty, and the whole place, though evidently uninhabited, was kept in substantial repair, and not

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 474, 475.

the less beautiful in my eyes because the orange-trees had somewhat broken their bounds; the shade of the flowering plants assumed a ranker luxuriance, and the scarlet blossoms of the pomegranate trailed more widely across our path than was consistent with the rules of exact gardening. At the further end of the garden we found ourselves on the edge of a broad moat, with some little water still in it, surrounding an old stone-built castle with round towers and high ramparts of stone.'*

Rajpoot villages are frequently situated on the slopes of hills, or rocky eminences, and surrounded by groves, or numerous scattered trees. Here, through the soft fleecy mists of the morning, large herds of deer may often be seen grazing; while the branches of the fruit-tree groves swarm with wild peacocks. In Marwar the construction of the villages differs entirely from anything elsewhere seen in India, and approaches, in physiognomy, the wigwams of the Western World. Each commune is surrounded by a circumvallation of thorns, which, with the stacks of chaff rising above it at intervals, has the appearance of a respectable fortification. These stacks of chaff, intended to supply the cattle with provender in scanty rainy seasons, are erected to the height of 20 or 30 feet, and are coated with a cement of earth and cow-dung, with a sprinkling of thorns, which are added to keep away the birds from roosting in them. If fresh coated occasionally, they will endure 10 years, and when necessity requires them to be eaten the "kine may be said to devour the village walls." These villages picturesquely scattered through the plain, break very agreeably the monotony incidental to a level surface. Near the banks of rivers the houses are sometimes thatched with bulrushes, which grow to the height of 10 feet.'†

In the country above the Ghauts, the villages are fortified in a different style. Every collection of houses, however

* Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. ii. p. 372.

† Colonel Tod, Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 700, 773; Bishop Heber's Narrative, vol. ii. p. 351, 357, 368, 372, 374.

small, is defended by a round wall, or rather tower, of stone, sometimes 40 feet in diameter, and six feet high. This is surmounted by a parapet of mud, in which there is a door that can be approached only by a ladder. Into this tower the inhabitants were wont on the appearance of a plundering party to retire with their families and most valuable effects; and having drawn up the ladder, defended themselves by hurling down stones on the assailants, in which they were vigorously aided by their women. More populous villages have square forts, flanked by round towers, which may, in some cases, deserve the name of a citadel. A circumvallation of mud is likewise thrown up around the villages. In many places the villages are defended, as in Ajmere, by hedges, which rise very high and thick, so as almost entirely to conceal the mud wall. These hedges greatly contribute to enliven the prospect, which is further adorned by the mangoes and other fruit-trees that usually grow around a village.

In Guzerat the villages are open, and the inhabitants more at their ease. 'The villages in the Dhuboy Pergunnah,' says Forbes, 'generally consist of thatched cottages, built of mud, and a few brick houses with tiled roofs; a small dewal, a mosque, and sometimes a choultrie, are the only public buildings. Near the large villages there is generally a tank or lake, where the rain is collected, for the use of the cattle in the dry season, when, for the space of eight months, not a single shower falls, and no water is to be met with except in these reservoirs: they are often enclosed with strong masonry, and their banks adorned by banian, mango, and tamarind trees, to shade the weary traveller, and lessen evaporation. The tanks are constructed at the expense of Government, or by an assessment on the villages; they also contribute to the masonry of a good well and cistern for cattle, when the large reservoirs fail. Sometimes these useful works are private acts of charity, from a rich individual, as instanced in the noble works of Govindsett, in the Concan. Large wells with a grand flight of steps down to the water are not uncommon in remote situations, where travellers,

merchants, and caravans are obliged to pass, far from other supplies.' After expatiating on the value of these blessings in the torrid zone, he continues, ' Hospitality to travellers prevails throughout Guzerat; a person of any consideration passing through the province is presented, at the entrance of a village, with fruit, milk, butter, firewood, and earthen pots for cookery: the women and children offer him wreaths of flowers. Small bowers are constructed on convenient spots, at a distance from a well or lake, where a person is maintained, by the nearest villages, to take care of the water-jars, and supply all travellers gratis. There are particular villages where the inhabitants compel all travellers to accept of one day's provisions; whether they be many or few, rich or poor, European or native, they must not refuse the offered bounty.'*

The villages on the banks of the Ganges, though merely a collection of mud-walled, thatched cottages, covered, however, in many instances, with a creeping plant bearing a beautiful broad leaf, of the gourd species, being embosomed in groves of cocoa-palms, banyan, and other trees, have a highly picturesque and rural appearance. A little graceful temple, generally of Siva, in a style almost Gothic, considerably increases the beauty of the scene. In one of these villages Bishop Heber, on his first sailing up the Ganges, describes the appearance of an Indian farm-yard and homestead: ' In front,' he says, ' was a small mud building, with a thatched verandah looking towards the village, and behind was a court filled with cocoa-nut husks, and a little rice straw; in the centre of this was a round thatched building, raised on bamboos about a foot from the ground, which they said was a *goliah*, or granary; round it were small mud cottages, each to all appearance an apartment in the dwelling. In one corner was a little mill, something like a crab-mill, to be worked by a man, for separating the rice from the husk. By all which we could see through the open doors, the floor

* Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 413, 415.

of the apartments was of clay, devoid of furniture and light, except what the door admitted.'*

The furniture of the Hindoo is exceedingly simple: their ordinary plates and dishes are formed from the leaf of the plantain-tree, or of the nymphæa lotus, that beautiful lily which abounds in every lake. These are neatly sown together with some grassy fibre; but, however neatly fashioned, are never used a second time. Even in the houses of the Nairs, which are neater and better kept than ordinary, you find little beyond a few mats, earthen pots, grindstones, and utensils for cleaning the rice, with a swing for the amusement of the family. A few earthen pots, and two jars, the one for the water, the other for oil, comprise the whole stock for a villager. The cooking utensils are sometimes of brass, or copper, as are likewise their drinking vessels, which are made with a spout, that they may pour out the water in a small stream, as in drinking it is thought indelicate to touch the vessel with their lips. In the superb dwellings of the Rajpoot nobles, where the painted and gilded ceiling is supported by columns of serpentine, and the walls are lined with mirrors, marble, or china, no costly furniture, no hangings, no chairs, tables, beds, couches, or candelabra, are to be seen. The floors are covered with soft rich carpets, over which, to preserve their glowing freshness, a white cloth is spread; and here the Rajpoot sits and sleeps. However, we find that on the coast of Malabar a different fashion sometimes prevails. The hall in the Zamorin's palace, into which Vasco de Gama and his companions were conducted on their first arrival, was set round with seats, rising one above another, like those of an amphitheatre; the floor was covered with a rich carpet; the walls were hung with silk tapestry interwoven with gold; and there were sofas for the prince and his guests. Neat little bedsteads of cane, manufactured by the hill tribes, are in use in many parts of India; as are likewise chairs and tables. In the wealthier habitations silver

* Narrative, &c. vol. i. p. 18.

utensils assume the place of earthen, and now that riches can be exhibited without fear of confiscation there is evidently, in the large cities, an adoption of many articles of European household furniture.

DIET OF THE HINDOOS.—The Hindoos in general, whether of high or low caste, do not, as has been erroneously supposed, subsist upon rice, or abstain from animal food. Even among the Brahmins no such pious abstinence from every thing which has had the principle of life exists, or ever did exist. Persons of this sacred caste eat animal food, like their neighbours; and if certain individuals, or certain sects among them, abstain, it is simply as a matter of taste, and not from any religious motive; for both by their laws and their scriptures the flesh of animals is expressly permitted to be eaten.* There are Hindoos however, both Brahmins and others, who restrict themselves to a vegetable diet.

The sect of Vishnu composes, in Hindostan, a very numerous body, and contains individuals of every caste, from the highest to the lowest. These sectarians, according to the Abbé Dubois, belong to the carnivorous part of mankind, of whom they by no means constitute the most abstemious members. They eat publicly all sorts of meat, excepting that of the cow, and drink toddy, arrack, and all other liquors that the country supplies, without shame or restraint.†

The Brahmins, *in general*, according to Dubois, add to their other numerous vices that of gluttony. When an opportunity occurs of satiating their appetite, they exceed all bounds of temperance; and such occasions, it is added, 'are frequent.‡

Intoxication is still more common among the Brahmins than the use of interdicted food. A large quantity of wine and brandy imported into Calcutta is drank by the Brahmins and other classes of Hindoos; to say nothing of the Mussulmans.

The Kshatriyas, or Rajpoots, are eminently carnivorous. When not engaged in war, they usually, at the proper season

* See Institutes of Menu, chap. v. ver. 36, 56, &c.

† Description, &c. p. 53. ‡ Ibid. p. 161.

of the year, devote a large portion of their time to the pleasures of the chace. Among the larger game, the most common is the wild boar. Of the flesh of this animal they appear to be particularly fond; and they pursue it with their utmost ardour. But the covers afforded by the nature of their country, especially the fields of maize, which there grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet, not unfrequently affords the boar a chance of escape. In the barren plains of Marwar, maize porridge is the common fare; but in Mewar, the paradise of the Rajpoot, the luxury of wheaten bread is well understood. Maize and Indian corn, gathered in an unripe state, are tied into bundles, roasted in the ear, and eaten with a little salt. For the introduction of melons and grapes, which at present form the principal dessert of the Hindoos, India is indebted to the Emperor Baber, the most ingenuous and chivalrous of Eastern conquerors. Tobacco was introduced by his grandson Jehângîr. When or by whom the use of opium was made known to the Rajpoots is not known; but 'this pernicious plant,' says an acute observer, 'has robbed the Rajpoot of half his virtues.' Under the influence of opium his natural bravery often degenerates into ferocity, while his countenance when he is not thus excited, has an air of drowsy imbecility.

From the earliest ages the soldiers of Hindoostan, like those of most other countries, have been addicted to intoxicating drinks; but these, though still in favour, are secondary in importance to the opiate. 'To eat opium together is the most inviolable pledge, and an agreement ratified by this ceremony is stronger than any adjuration. If a Rajpoot pays a visit, the first question is, *umul kya?* 'have you had your opiate?'—*umul kao*, 'take your opiate.' On a birth-day, when all the chiefs convene to congratulate their brother on another knot to his years, the large cup is brought forth, a lump of opium put therein, upon which water is poured, and by the aid of a stick a solution is made, to which each helps his neighbour, not with a glass, but with the hollow of his hand held to his mouth. To judge from the wry faces on the occasion, none can like it, and to get rid of the nauseous taste,

comfit balls are handed round. It is curious to observe the animation it inspires; a Rajpoot is fit for nothing without his *umul,* and Col. Tod often dismissed their men of business to refresh their intellects by a dose, for when its effects are dissipating they become mere logs. Opium to the Rajpoot is more necessary than food.*

Scarcely any kind of animal food is rejected by the Rajpoot, excepting such as by all civilized nations has been accounted unclean. His game consists of the hare, the deer, the boar, the elk, the buffalo; and of the wild-dog, the hyæna, the wolf, and the tiger; of which, the latter class are destroyed as noxious. The votaries of *Caniya,* who have taken refuge in his sanctuary at Nât'hdwârâ, confine themselves, in penance, to a vegetable diet, which consists of dried fruits, spices, and curd, which, however, in these degenerate days, are seasoned with rose-water, amber, and all the aromatics of the East. When entertaining Europeans, the Rajpoots, fearful that their dishes may not be suited to the palates of their guests, sometimes request them to bring along with them their *cuisine.* An example of this occurred to Colonel Tod at Júdpoor. Having been invited to dinner by the Rajah, the prince added to the invitation the above curious request, as he feared that the fare of the dessert might prove unpalatable. 'But this,' says the traveller, 'I had often seen done in Sindia's camp, where joints of mutton, fowls, and fricassées, would diversify the provender of the Mahratta. I intimated that we had no apprehension that we should not do justice to the gastronomy of Júdpoor; however we sent our tables, and some claret to drink long life to the King of Maroodes. Having paid our respects to our host, he dismissed us, with the complimentary wish that appetite might wait upon us, and preceded by a host of gold and silver sticks, we were ushered into a hall, where we found the table literally covered with curries, pillaws, and ragouts of every kind, in which was not forgotten, the *hari moong Mundore ra,* 'the green pulse of Mundore,' the favourite dish next to *rabri,* or maize porridge,

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 644, 645.

of the simple Rahtore. Here, however, we saw displayed the dishes of both the Hindoo and Mussulman, and nearly all were served in silver. The curries were excellent, especially those of the vegetable tribes made of the pulses, the kakris or cucumbers, and of a miniature melon, not larger than an egg, which grows spontaneously in these regions, and is transported by kasids or runners, as presents, for many hundred miles round.'*

Fruit, as might be expected from its plenty and cheapness, enters largely into the food of the Hindoos.† Their groves and gardens supply an abundance of guavas, plantains, bananas, custard-apples, tamarinds, oranges, limes, citrons, grapes, pine-apples, and pomegranates. But of all the fruits of India the best as well as the most plentiful is the mango, which is found in all parts of the country, even in the forests. The superior kinds of mango are extremely delicious, being not unlike the large yellow Venice peach, heightened by the flavour of the orange and anana.† In the mango season, it is the principal diet of the poor, and supposed to be very nutricious. The Chili pepper,‡ and the cardamom, a pleasant spice from the Malabar coast, form a principal ingredient in curries.

The Hindoos are particularly fond of wild honey, which is found in the clefts of the rocks, in caverns, and on the summits of scarped rugged mountains. Of fish likewise, whether fresh or salted, they constantly make use. Whole tribes of men subsist by catching them, and they are conveyed in vast quantities into the interior. Many natives of the Concan are addicted to the chace, and eat the flesh of deer, hares, quails, partridges, and pigeons. The *Chensu*, a tribe inhabiting the hilly country above Malabar, destroy and kill all kinds of game. The *Telinga Banijigaru*, who are worshippers of Vishnu, and are all either merchants, farmers, or porters, eat sheep, goats, hogs, fowls, and fish, and, though prohibited

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 732.

† To me the flavour smacks strongly of turpentine, and the liking for the Mango appears quite an acquired taste. The finest I ever met was at Zanzibar.—[R. M. M.]

‡ Forbes, Oriental Memoirs.

the use of spirituous liquors, may intoxicate themselves with *bang* (wild hemp). The *Madigas*, who dress hides, make shoes, or cultivate the ground, eat not only all kinds of animal food, but even carrion: and openly drink spirituous liquors. The *Ruddi*, a very respectable caste of Sudras, chiefly employed in agriculture, eat hogs, sheep, goats, venison, and fowls, and are permitted the use of *bang*.

The *Palliwanlu*, a tribe of Tamul extraction, who are either farmers or gardeners, both eat animal food and drink spirituous liquors. Mutton and fish may lawfully be eaten by the *Muchaveru*, or shoemakers, who, contrary to the practice of persons of this caste in Europe, are expected to abstain from spirituous liquors. To make up in some measure for this extraordinary prohibition, they are permitted to marry as many wives as they please.

The *Wully Tigulas*, another Tamul tribe; the *Teliga Devanges*, of the sect of Siva; the *Baydaru*, who are soldiers and hunters, likewise of the sect of Siva; the *Curubas*, soldiers and cultivators; and the *Canara Devangas*, all eat animal food, and, in many instances, drink spirituous liquors. The tastes of the *Niadis*, an outcast tribe of Malabar, are extremely peculiar. They refuse to perform any kind of labour, and consequently are plunged in the deepest poverty. Unable to catch fish or kill game, they subsist upon wild roots, and whatever they can get by begging; but are occasionally fortunate enough to kill a tortoise, or hook a crocodile, the flesh of which, like the Nubians, they reckon delicious food. The *Bacadaru*, a tribe of Carnata origin, now sunk into slavery, not only eat animal food, but, to borrow the expressive language of Buchanan, 'may lawfully intoxicate themselves;' an advantage as above observed denied to the cobblers.

According to Buchanan, the other castes of southern India, who are commonly known to make use of animal food, are—the *Goalas*, or shepherds; the *Bestas*, farmers and lime-burners; the Mysore farmers; the *Curubaru*, who eat every thing but beef, even carrion; the *Naimars* or *Nairs*, who, al-

though properly Vishnuites, wear the mark of Siva. The *Magayer*, or fishermen; the *Biluaras*, who extract the juice from the palm tree; the *Corar*, (this caste may lawfully eat tigers, but reject dogs and snakes); the *Handi Curubas*.

The *Pariahs*, who are supposed to amount to several million of souls, do not abstain even from beef. They possibly form a portion of the aboriginal population, who, refusing, on the rise of Brahminism, to adopt the prejudices of the new sect, were anathematized and excommunicated by those revengeful priests. Many of the Bengal Brahmins eat fish, and several sorts of animal food; they are not only allowed them, but at some particular ceremonies they are enjoined to do so.* But the Mahrattas, though all Hindoos, and the lower classes especially, eat of almost every thing that comes in their way; as mutton, goat, wild hog, game, and fish. Major Moor, mentions two places by name where the Mahrattas *eat beef*, and permit cattle to be killed, and publicly exposed to sale.† He then adds:—The lower tribes of Hindoos are not so scrupulous as the higher about what they eat, or what they touch; especially if they are not observed by others. When at a distance from their families, and out of sight of their priests, many divest themselves of these nice ideas of purity. Those domesticated with Europeans generally affect

* I have eaten a very fine beef steak in a Brahmin's house at Calcutta. —[R.M.M.]

† Forbes tells a story illustrative of the scruples of the lower Hindoos, which is too good to be omitted. 'I knew a gentleman,' he says, 'who having formed a party for a little excursion into the country, provided a round of beef, as a principal dish in the cold collation. As he was going on horseback, he desired the beef might be covered with a cloth, and put into his palanquin to keep it cool; the bearers refused to carry a vehicle which contained such a pollution. The gentleman, on finding that neither remonstrances, entreaties, or threats, were of any avail, cut off a slice of the meat, and eating it in their presence desired them to carry him to the place of rendezvous. This produced the desired effect; the bearers were the first to laugh at their folly, and exclaimed, 'Master come wise man, with two eyes; while poor black man come very foolish with only one;' and taking up the palanquin with the beef, set off towards the tents in great good humour.' Vol. i. p. 2; ii. 139.

to be very scrupulous; an English table covered with a variety of food is necessarily surrounded by a number of servants of different castes to attend the guests. At Baroche, Surat, and Bombay, a Hindoo will not remove a dish that has been defiled with beef, a Mohammedan cannot touch a plate polluted by pork, nor will a Parsee take one away on which is hare or rabbit. I never knew more than one Parsee servant who would snuff a candle, from a fear of extinguishing the symbol of the deity he worships, nor would this man ever do it in the presence of another Parsee."*

Bishop Heber observes, 'I had always heard, and fully believed, till I came to India, that it was a grievous crime, in the opinion of the Brahmins, to eat the flesh or shed the blood of any living creature whatever.'† But the Bishop had not sailed up the Ganges to Calcutta before he found himself compelled to abandon this belief. Among the merchant ships and Maldive boats, which crowded the Hooghly, and seemed to reproduce the naval activity of the Thames, he saw the little barks of numerous fishermen, who were employed in catering for the appetites of their wealthy countrymen, Brahmins as well as others. Fish, our traveller now found, 'is considered as one of the purest and most lawful kinds of food. Nothing, indeed, seems more generally mistaken than the supposed prohibition of animal food to the Hindoos. Thus many Brahmins eat both fish and kid. The Rajpoots, besides these, eat mutton, venison, or goat's flesh. Some castes may eat any thing but fowls, beef or pork; while pork is with others a favourite diet, and beef only is prohibited.' He then adds, that though intoxicating liquors are by their religion forbidden to the Hindoos, the prohibition is very generally disregarded by persons of all ranks.‡

Respecting the Pythagoræan habits of the Brahmins and Hindoos, Heber wrote—'You may be, perhaps, as much surprised as I was to find that those who can afford it are hardly

* Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 138.

† Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 347, 8vo. edit.

‡ Narrative of a Journey &c. vol. i. p. 9.

less carnivorous than ourselves; that even the purest Brahmins are allowed to eat mutton and venison.' And again, in another letter to a friend, he adds, 'I have now myself seen Brahmins of the highest caste cut off the heads of goats as a sacrifice to Durga (Bhavani); and I know from the testimony of Brahmins, as well as from other sources, that not only hecatombs of animals are offered in this manner as a meritorious act (a Rajah about 25 years back offered 60,000 in one fortnight,) but that any person, Brahmins not excepted, eats readily of the flesh of whatever has been offered up to one of their divinities, while among almost all the other castes, mutton, pork, venison, fish, any thing but beef and fowls, are consumed as readily as in Europe.'*

Herodotus mentions a rumour that there were cannibals in India, who were said to eat even the bodies of their parents. We find the charge of cannibalism renewed by a modern author of considerable reputation. 'Not only,' says Major Moor, 'do the Hindoos, even the Brahmins, eat flesh, but they eat (one sect at least) human flesh. They do not, I conclude, kill human subjects to eat, but they eat such as they find in or about the Ganges, and perhaps other rivers. The name of the sect is *Paramahansa;* and I have received authentic information of individuals of this sect being not very unusually seen about Benares, floating down the river on, *and feeding on a corpse.* Nor is this a low despicable tribe; but on the contrary, esteemed by themselves at least, as a very high one; and my information stated that the human brain is judged by these epicurean cannibals as the most delicious morsel of their unsocial banquet.'

In some of the districts of Bahar, there is a tribe of people called *Sheep-eaters,* who seize the animal alive, tear open its throat with their teeth, suck the living blood, and actually devour the flesh and entrails, until nothing remains but the skeleton. Lady Anstruther, who made a valuable collection of drawings during her residence in India, has a set of paintings in water colours, done by a native, which contains the whole

* Narrative &c. vol. iii. p. 251, 277, 347.

process of these extraordinary gluttons, from the first seizure of the unfortunate animal, until it is completely devoured. A lithographic sketch, made after a similar set of paintings, of a sheep-eater in the various stages of his disgusting meal, is published in the third volume of the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, accompanied with a brief memoir by General Hardwicke.

Among all these cannibals and carnivorous people, however, there are undoubtedly many Brahmins and others who rigidly abstain from all kinds of animal food. Nevertheless their aliments are sufficiently varied. The feast of one of these vegetable Brahmins generally consist of seasoned bread, rice, curry, vegetables, pickles, and a dessert. Their ordinary bread is prepared from flour of wheat, juari, or bajera. To this they are fond of adding a thin cake or wafer, 'made from the flour of *oord*, highly seasoned with assafœtida; a salt called *popper-khor;* and a very hot massaula, composed of turmeric, black pepper, ginger, garlic, several kinds of warm seeds, and a quantity of the hottest Chili pepper,' All these ingredients are kneaded together with the oord flour and water into a tenacious paste, which is then rolled into cakes thin as a wafer, which, having been first dried a little in the sun, are then baked, like the oaten cakes of the Scotch, until they are quite crisp. The Brahmini curry is generally nothing more than warm buttermilk, thickened with grain-flour, and slightly seasoned with spices. Another of their favourite dishes is composed of a sort of split pea, boiled with salt and turmeric, and eaten with *ghee*, or clarified butter. When the dinner is prepared the Brahmin first washes his body in warm water, during which operation he wears his *dotee*, or that cloth which, fastened round his loins, hangs down to his ancles: when washed, he hangs up the dotee to dry, and binds in its place a piece of silk, it not being allowable for a Brahmin to wear any thing else when eating. If a person of another caste, or even a Brahmin who is not washed, touches his dotee while drying, he cannot wear it without washing it again. After going through several forms of prayer

and other ceremonies, he sits down to his food, which is spread on fresh gathered leaves, fastened together to the size wanted for the company. The dishes and plates are invariably composed of leaves; a Brahmin may not eat out of any thing else. Tin vessels, or copper tinned, may be used for cooking; but a Brahmin cannot eat out of them. The food, after being prepared in the kitchen, is placed in distinct portions, on dishes of different size, form, and depth, on the large verdant covering in a regular manner. In the centre of the cover is always a large pile of plain boiled rice, and at a feast there are generally two other heaps of white and yellow rice, seasoned with spices and salt; and two of sweet rice, to be eaten with *chatna*, pickles, and stewed vegetables: the latter are chiefly brenjals, bendre turoy, and different kinds of beans, all savourily dressed and heated with chilies of every description. The *chatna* is usually made from a vegetable called *cotemear*, to the eye very much resembling parsley, but to those unused to it, of a very disagreeable taste and smell: this is so strongly heated with chilies, as to render the other ingredients less distinguishable. The chatna is sometimes made with cocoa-nut, lime-juice, garlic, and chilies, and, with the pickles, is placed in deep leaves round the large cover, to the number of 30 or 40, the Hindoos being very fond of this stimulus to their rice. These pickles are not prepared with vinegar, but preserved in oil and salt, seasoned with chilie and the acid of tamarinds, which in a salted state is much used in Hindoostan. Brahmins and many other Hindoos reject the onion from their bill of fare. Ghee, which, in deep boats formed of leaves, seems to constitute the essence of the dinner, is plentifully dispensed. The dessert consists of mangoes, preserved with sugar, ginger, limes, and other sweetmeats; syrup of different fruits, and sometimes a little ripe fruit; but the dessert is not common. Such is the entertainment of a rich Brahmin who eats no animal food.

The poor, whose means will not allow them to think of animal food, consume rice, dhall, and other cheap grains, seasoned with salt, spices, and, if possible, a little dried or fresh

fish. The Hindoo uses the right hand only in eating. The use of knives, forks, spoons, &c. he abjures as an abomination; he drinks out of a brass cup, or from the hollow of his hand; but is always careful that the vessel, when any is used, does not touch his lips.

LITERATURE.—The antiquity of the Hindoos is demonstrated by the ancientness, and in many instances the purity of their literary compositions.

Religious works.—The Vedas (signifying knowledge) are, in every respect, the most important work of their ancient literature. They are the basis of their religion, and are appealed to as the foundation of all their social and political institutions. Only a small portion of them has hitherto been drawn to light, and, up to the present moment, the principal source of our information respecting them is a dissertation by Mr. Colebrooke, printed in the eighth volume of the 'Asiatic Researches.'

The Vedas are four in number; each Veda consisting of two parts, denominated the *Mantras*, or prayers, and the *Brâhmanas*, or precepts. The complete collection of the *Mantras* (or hymns, prayers, and invocations) belonging to one Veda is entitled its *Sanhitâ*. Every other portion of Indian scripture is included under the general head of divinity (*Brâhmana*). This comprises precepts which inculcate religious duties, maxims which explain those precepts, and arguments which relate to theology.'*

The whole of the Indian theology is professedly founded on tracts, likewise considered as parts of the Vedas, and denominated *Upanishads*. The proper meaning of this designation is doubtful: it is usually supposed to signify 'mystery;' but neither the etymology nor the usual acceptation of the word seems to warrant this interpretation.†

* As. Res. vol. viii. p. 387, 388. Compare Transact. of the Roy. As. Soc. vol. i. p. 448, 449.

† As. Res. vol viii. p. 472. The Upanishads were translated into Persian by Sultan Dârâ-Shekûh, the eldest son of the Mogol emperor, Shâh-Jehân, and brother of Aurungzebe; who was born A.D. 1615, and was

The *Mantras*, or prayers, are the principal portion of each Veda, and apparently preceded the *Brâhmanas*. Those of the Rig-Veda are metrical, and are recited aloud; those of the Sâma-Veda are chaunted with musical modulation; those of the Yajur-Veda are in prose, and are inaudibly recited. A table of contents, appended to the several *Sanhitâs*, states the name of the author of each prayer, that of the deity or being invoked, and if the prayer be in verse, the number of stanzas and the metre. Indra, or the firmament, fire, the sun, the moon, water, air, the spirits, the atmosphere, and the earth are the objects most frequently addressed.*

The following is Mr. Colebrooke's literal translation of a single prayer from the Rig-Veda:—

'Guardian of this abode! be acquainted with us; be to us a wholesome dwelling; afford us what we ask of thee: and grant happiness to our bipeds and quadrupeds. Guardian of this house! increase both us and our wealth. Moon! while thou art friendly, may we, with our kine and our horses, be exempted from decrepitude: guard us as a father protects his offspring. Guardian of this dwelling! may we be united with a happy, delightful, and melodious abode afforded by thee: guard our wealth now under thy protection, or yet in expectancy, and do thou defend us.'

killed by Aurungzebe's order in 1659. This Persian translation was again translated into Latin by Anquetil du Perron. (*Oupnekhat, id est, Secretum tegendum*, &c. Paris, 1801, 2 vols. 4to.) A free translation from the Sanscrit original of four of the shorter Upanishads may be found in Rammohun Roy's 'Translation of several principal Books, &c. of the Veds.' London, 1832, 8vo.

* 'Every line,' observes Mr. Colebrooke, in speaking of the prayers of the Rig-Veda, 'is replete with allusions to mythology; not a mythology which avowedly exalts deified heroes (as in the more recent legendary poems of the Hindoos), but one which personifies the elements and planets, and which peoples heaven and the world below with various orders of beings.' Mr. Colebrooke proceeds to say, that he has not remarked in these hymns any thing that corresponds with the favourite legends of those sects which worship either the *Linga* or *Sacti*, or else Râma or Krishna. See As. Res. vol. viii. p. 398.

The difference of style alone would be sufficient to prove that in the Vedas, as they are now before us, books, treatises, and fragments belonging to different ages are put together. At what period the present arrangement was made, we are as yet unable to determine, since our total want of authentic information, respecting the history of India, renders it altogether extremely difficult to ascertain the epoch of any of the ancient monuments of Sanscrit literature. From a passage stating the position of the solstitial points, which occurs in a sort of calendar appended to the Rig-Veda, Mr. Colebrooke has drawn the conclusion that this calendar must have been regulated during the fourteenth century;* and part at least of the hymns in honour of the several deities, whose festivals this calendar was destined to regulate, now embodied in the Rig-Veda, must then have been already extant.

Legends.—The class of Sanscrit writings, next in importance to the Vedas, are the *Purânas,* or legendary poems, similar, in some respects, to the Grecian theogonies. The *Purânas* are said to be composed by Vyâsa, the compiler of the present collection of the Vedas. Each Purâna treats of five subjects;—the creation of the universe, its destruction, and the renovation of worlds; the *avatâras,* or manifestations of the supreme deity; the genealogy of gods and heroes; chronology, according to a fabulous system; and heroic history, containing the achievements of demi-gods and heroes. Some of the Purânas, being less obscure than the Vedas, are now very generally read and studied, and constitute the popular, or poetical creed of the present Hindoos. The principal Purânas are 18 in numher; their names are the Brahma, Padma, Brahmânda, Agni, Vishnu, Garuda, Brahmavaivarta, Siva, Linga, Nâradîya, Skanda, Mârkandeya, Bhavinhyat, Matsya, Varâha, Kûrma, Vâmana, and Bhâgavata Purâna. They are reckoned to contain 400,000 stanzas. (Wilson, Mackenzie Collection, vol.i. p. 48.) There are also 18 *Upapurânas,* or similar poems of inferior sanctity and different appellations.

* Asiatic Researches, vol. viii. p. 491, &c.

Poetry.—Two great epic poems, the *Râmâyana* and the *Mahâbhârata*, are usually classed with the Purânas. The *Râmâyana*, comprising 24,000 stanzas, divided into seven books, and written by the ancient poet Vâlmîki, records the adventures of Râma, an incarnation of the god Vishnu, who was born as the son of Dasarat'ha, king of Oude. The *Mahâbhârata* is said to contain no less than 100,000 stanzas. Vyâsa, the supposed compiler of the Vedas and Purânas, is said to be its author. It records the actions of Krishna, the last and most celebrated of the avatârs of Vishnu.

Law.—Books on law constitute another important branch of Sanscrit literature. The treatises coming under this designation may be divided into two classes: some consist of maxims or precepts, usually expressed in verse, put together into codes of greater or less extent, and attributed to various ancient sages, as their original and inspired authors; others consist either of comments on these traditional texts, elucidating and amplifying their import, and solving such difficulties as arise from apparent contradictions in different passages; or of systematic treatises, in which the several topics of Hindoo jurisprudence are discussed according to logical arrangement, and passages from the ancient law-givers are adduced in support of the doctrines advanced.

The most distinguished work extant of the first class is undoubtedly the code generally known under the title of the Institutes of Menu. Numerous compilations of a similar nature exist, which are attributed to Gôtama, Nârada, Sanka, Likhita, Kâtyâyana, Yâjnawalkya, and other ancient sages. Among the commentaries on their codes, we shall here only mention the gloss of Kullûkabhattâ on the laws of Menu, and the ample commentary of Vijnânêswara on the Institutes of Yâjnawalkya, known in India under the title of the *Mitâkshara:* the latter work is the principal law authority, now followed by the Hindoo lawyers officially attached to the courts of justice in the Dekkan, and in the western provinces of Hindoostan.* Among the works on jurisprudence arranged

* Rammohun Roy's Judicial System of India, p. 48.

on a free system, independent from the accidental succession of topics in the ancient compilations of legal precepts, we may notice the *Viramitródaya* of Mitramisra, the *Dáyabhága* of Jîmûtavâhana, and the Digest of Jagannât'ha, as some of the most generally known.*

Epic Poems.—The two great epic poems of the Hindoos, the Râmâyana and the Mahâbhârata, are written in a remarkably easy and natural kind of verse, and in a language which though sometimes highly expressive and energetic, generally bears the character of the simplest narrative, and the tone of common conversation. There are, however, other Sanscrit poems, evidently belonging to a more modern age, and written in a style of artificial refinement, both as to language and versification.

The Drama.—The dramatic literature of the Hindoos became first known to the literary public of Europe through the translation of one of its greatest ornaments, the play of *Sacontalâ*, by Sir William Jones. The translation of the dramatised allegory, called *Prabódha Chandródaya*, or 'Rise of the Moon of Intellect,' by Dr. Taylor, of Bombay, was published in 1812, more calculated to throw light on the metaphysics than on the scenic literature of the Hindoos. In 1827, however, Mr. Wilson's English translation of six new plays appeared,† accompanied with a dissertation on the dramatic system of the Hindoos, and with some account of other extant Sanscrit dramas. Independently of the other undeniable poetic merit of many parts, at least, of these compositions, they are highly interesting, as the most genuine pictures of Hindoo manners, and of the condition of society in Hindoostan previous to its conquest by foreign invaders. It deserves to be noticed, as a striking peculiarity of the Hindoo dramas, that different forms of speech are employed for different characters: the hero and the principal personages speaking San-

* The two latter works are translated by Mr. Colebrooke.

† Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindoos, by H. H. Wilson, Calcutta, 1827, 3 vols. 8vo. A new edition of this work has just been published (London, 1835, 2 vols. 8vo.)

scrit; but women and the inferior characters using the various modifications of that language, which are comprehended under the term Prâcrit. None of the Hindoo plays at present known can boast of a very high antiquity, and nearly all appear to have been composed at a period when the Sanscrit has ceased to be the colloquial medium. 'They must therefore,' observes Mr. Wilson, 'have been unintelligible to a considerable portion of the audience, and never could have been so directly addressed to the bulk of the population as to have exercised much influence upon their passions or their tastes. This circumstance, however, is perfectly in harmony with the constitution of Hindoo society, by which the highest branches of literature, as well as the highest offices in the state, were reserved for the privileged tribes of Kshatriyas and Brahmins.' To the unities of time and place the dramatic poets of India have paid but little attention: they are not, however, destitute of certain rules; and many Hindoo writers have endeavoured to reduce to a system the technicalities of dramatic composition. The Hindoos had no separate edifices appropriated to dramatic representations, nor do they appear to have possessed any complicated scenic apparatus. In the palaces of kings there was a hall or saloon, in which dancing and singing were practised and sometimes exhibited, and this room was fitted up on purpose for dramatic entertainments.* Plays were only occasionally enacted, at seasons peculiarly sacred to some divinity, or at royal coronations, marriages, and other public occasions; and this circumstance accounts partly for the limited number, and partly for the great length of those Hindoo dramas which have been preserved to us.

Fables.—The popular collection of fables, commonly known in Europe under the name of the 'Fables of Pilpay,' are of Indian origin. The Sanscrit original has now been ascertained to be the *Panchatantra*, a work so called from its being divided into five *tantras*, or sections, and probably compiled in the fifth century of our era. It consists of stories told in

* At the English theatre at Chouringee, Calcutta, a large part of the audience is composed of the most respectable of the Hindoo gentry.

prose, but interspersed with moral maxims, and other sentences in verse, many of which have been borrowed from other authors, and can be traced to their original sources.*

The Arabian Nights were long considered to have been originally composed in the Arabic language; but, latterly, some at least of the most enchanting tales embodied in that collection have been discovered to be of Indian origin, and the Sanscrit to which they have recently been traced is a voluminous collection of stories known in India under the title of the *Vrihatkat'há*.†

Arithmetic.—The decimal system of the rotation of numerals, now generally in use among us, is an Indian invention, which was probably communicated to the Arabians through the Hindoo mathematicians and astronomers, who visited Bagdad during the reigns of the earlier Abbaside caliphs; and Gerbert of Aurillac, subsequently raised to the papal throne as Pope Sylvester II. (died A.D. 1003,) who had studied in the Arabian universities of Seville and Cordova, in Spain, is usually supposed to have first introduced it into Europe. To the Hindoos the Arabians also appear to be indebted for their first knowledge of algebra. The earliest extant Arabic treaties on algebra,‡ confirms by internal evidence the supposition previously entertained by Cossali, Hutton, and others, that the art of solving problems by reduction and equation had not originated among the Arabians, but had been communicated to them from India. The principal Indian writers on algebra and arithmetic generally, are Aryabhatta (in the

* See Mr. Wilson's account of the *Panchatantra*, Trans. of the Royal Asiat. Soc. vol. i. p. 155, &c.

† See the (Calcutta) Quarterly Oriental Magazine, June, 1825, p. 250, &c.; and March, 1824, p. 68, &c. Wilson's Theatre of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 138.

‡ By Mohammed ben Musa, who wrote during the reign of the Abbaside caliph Mamûn, in the earlier part of the ninth century of our era. An edition and translation of his elementary treatise on Algebra was published three years ago by the Oriental Translation Committee.

fifth century of our era,) Brahmagupta (who wrote about A.D. 628,) and Bhascara (in the twelfth century.)*

Astronomy appears, from an early period, to have been cultivated by the Hindoos for the regulation of time. It seems probable that the astronomy of the Hindoos was originally as independent from that of the Greeks as their early proficiency in algebra; although no doubt can be entertained that, at a period when astronomy had already made some progress among them, they received hints from the astronomical schools of the Greeks.† The number of astronomical works in the Sanscrit language is considerable: the most celebrated among them are the *Sûryasiddhânta* of Varâhamihira, who, to judge from the position of the colures in his work, must have written in the latter part of the fifth century of our era;‡ the *Brahma-siddhânta* of Brahmagupta, who is supposed to have written about A.D. 636;§ and the *Siddhânta-sirómani* of Bhâscara, which was completed in A.D. 1150.‖ 'The Hindoos place the earth in the centre of the world, and make the sun, and moon, and minor planets revolve round it, apparently in concentric orbits, with unequal or irregular motion. For a physical explanation of the phenomena, they imagine the planets driven by currents of air along their respective orbits (besides one great vortex carrying stars and planets with prodigious velocity round the earth, in the compass of a day.) The winds or currents, impelling the several planets, communicate to them velocities, by which their motion should be equable, and in the plane of the ecliptic; but the planets are

* See Colebrooke's Algebra, with Arithmetic and Mensuration, from the Sanscrit of Brahmagupta and Bhâscara. London, 1817, 4to.

† Colebrooke's Algebra, &c., Dissert. p. 24; Whish, on the Origin and Antiquity of the Hindoo Zodiac, in the Transactions of the Literary Society of Madras, part. i. p. 63, &c.

‡ See Davis on the Astronomical Computations of the Hindoos; As. Res. vol. ii. p. 225—286.

§ Asiat. Res. vol. vi. p. 586; Colebrooke's Algebra, from the Sanscrit, &c., Dissertation, p. 6.

‖ Asiat. Res. vol. xii. p. 221, note.

drawn from this course by certain controlling powers, situated at the apogees, conjunctions, and nodes. These powers are clothed by Hindoo imaginations with celestial bodies invisible to human sight, and furnished with hands and reins, by which they draw the planets from their direct path and uniform progress. The being at the apogee, for instance, constantly attracts the planet towards itself, alternately, however, with the right and left hands. The deity at the node diverts the planet, first to one side then to the other, from the ecliptic; and, lastly, the deity at the conjunction causes the planet, to be one while stationary, another while retrograde, and to move at different times with velocity accelerated or retarded. These fancied beings are considered as invisible planets; the nodes and apogees having a motion of their own in the ecliptic. This whimsical system, more worthy of the mythologist than of the astronomer, is gravely set forth in the *Súryasiddhánta;* and even Bhâscara gives it, though not without indications of reluctant acquiescence. To explain on mathematical principles the irregularity of the planetary motions, the Hindoo astronomers remove the earth from the centre of the planet's orbit, and assume the motion in that excentric to be really equable, though it appear irregular as viewed from the earth.'* Mr. Colebrooke, after a minute investigation of the notions of the Hindoo astronomers, concerning the precession of the equinoxes, arrives at the conclusion that on this subject the Hindoos had a theory which, though erroneous, was their own; that they had a knowledge of the true doctrine of an uniform motion in antecedentia, at least 700 years ago, and that they had approximated to the true ratio of that motion much nearer than Ptolemy, before the Arabian astronomers, and as near the truth as these have ever done since.†

* Colebrooke, Asiat. Res. vol. xii. p. 233, 234.

† Asiat. Res. vol. xii. p. 220, &c. 'Some of the most celebrated Hindoo astronomers, as Brahmagupta, have been silent on the subject of a change in the places of the colures, or have denied their regular periodical motion. Others, as Manjâla and Bhâscara, have asserted a periodical

'Their calendar, both civil and religious, was governed chiefly, not exclusively, by the moon and sun, and the motion of these luminaries were carefully observed by them; and with such success, that their determination of the moon's synodical revolution, which they were principally concerned with, is a much more correct one than the Greeks ever achieved.*

Philosophy. The various systems of Hindoo philosophy are in some instances considered orthodox, as consistent with the theology of the Vedas; such are the two *Mîmánsá* schools: others are deemed heretical, as incompatible with the sacred writings of the Hindoos: such are the *Nyáya* and the *Vaiśêshika* system; others again are partly heterodox, and partly conformable to the established Hindoo creed; such are the *Sánkhya* and *Yóga.* The two *Mînânsàs* (for there are two schools of metaphysics under this title) comprise the complete system of interpretation of the precepts and doctrine of the Vedas, both practical and theological. The prior *Mîmânsá (Pûrva Mînânsá,* or *Karma Mîmânsá),* which has Jaimini for its founder, teaches the art of reasoning, with the express view of aiding the interpretation of the Vedas: its scope is the ascertainment of duties and religious observances prescribed in the sacred books. 'It is not directly a system of philosophy, nor chiefly so; but, in course of delivering canons of scriptural interpretation, it incidentally touches upon philosophical topics; and scholastic disputants have elicited from its dogmas principles of reasoning applicable to the prevailing points of controversy agitated in the Hindoo schools of philosophy.'† The latter *Mîmansá (Uttara Mîmánsá,* or *Brahma Mîmánsá),* which is attributed to *Vyása,* is usually called *Vedânta* i. e. 'the conclusion, end, or scope of the Veda,' and consists in a refined psychology, deduced

revolution of the colures; but the greater number of celebrated writers, and all the modern Hindoo astronomers, have affirmed a libration of the equinoctial points.' Ibid. p. 217.

* Colebrooke's Algebra, &c., Dissertation, p. 22.

† Colebrooke, Trans. Roy. Asiat. Soc. vol. i. p. 19, 439, &c.

chiefly from the Upanishads, which goes to a denial of a material world.*

'The *Nyáya*, of which Gôtama is the acknowledged author, furnishes a philosophical arrangement, with strict rules of reasoning, not unaptly compared to the dialectic of the Aristotelian school. Another course of philosophy connected with it bears the denomination of *Vaiśêshika*. Its reputed author is Kanâde, who, like Democritus, maintained the doctrine of atoms. A different philosophical system, partly heterodox, and partly comformable to the established Hindoo creed, is the *Sânkhya;* of which also, as of the preceding, there are two schools—one usually known by that name, the other commonly termed *Yôga*.'† The former was founded by Kapila, the latter by *Patanjali*. The two schools differ upon one point, which is the most important of all—the proof of the existence of God. The school of Patanjali recognises God, and is, therefore, denominated the theistical Sânkhya; that of Kapila is atheistical, inasmuch as it acknowledges no Creator of the Universe, nor Supreme Ruling Providence. The gods of Kapila are beings superior to man; but, like him, subject to change and transmigration.‡

The preceding remarks have reference to that portion of the literature of the Hindoos which is written in the Sanscrit language, partly because it is the most important and classical branch of it, and partly because the literature, extant in the various vernacular dialects of India, has not yet sufficiently been explored. As far as our present knowledge extends, the majority of the works written in the Hindi, Bengali, Mahratta, Tamul, and Teloogoo languages consists in

* See Colebrooke, Trans. Roy. Asiat. Soc. vol. ii. p. 1, &c. Rammohun Roy's 'Translation of an Abridgment of the Vedant,' in his 'Translation of several Books, &c. of the Veds," p. 1—22. F. H. H. Windischmann, Sancara sive de Theologumenis Vedanticorum. Bonn, 1833, 8vo.

† Colebrooke, l. c. vol. i. p. 19.

‡ Colebrooke, Trans. Roy. Asiat. Soc. vol. i. p. 19, 25, &c.; Lassen's Gymnosophista, fascic. i. Bonn, 1832, 4to.

translations or imitations of compositions in the Sanscrit.* It is a remarkable fact, that no strictly historical works, of a date anterior to the conquest of northern India by the Mohammedans, have yet been discovered in any Indian language.†

ARCHITECTURE.—The sacred buildings of Hindostan have long been the theme of admiration, and the Mahometan conquerors of Indian seem to have vied with the Hindoos in the magnitude and beauty of their structures. The most ancient temples are probably those excavated in the sides of mountains; one of the earliest of which is the Cave of Elephanta, situate in a island of the same name in the Bay of Bombay.‡

'The entrance into this temple, which is entirely hewn out of a stone resembling porphyry, is by a spacious front supported by two massy pillars and two pilasters forming three openings, under a thick and steep rock, overhung by brushwood and wild shrubs. The long ranges of columns that appear closing in perspective on every side; the flat roof of solid rock, that seems to be prevented from falling only by the massy pillars, whose capitals are pressed down and flattened as if by the superincumbent weight; the darkness that obscures the interior of the temple, which is dimly lighted only by the entrances; and the gloomy appearance of the gigantic stone figures ranged along the wall, and hewn, like the whole temple, out of the living rock,—joined to the strange uncertainty that hangs over the history of this place, —carry the mind back to distant periods, and impress it with

* See Ward's View, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. iv. p. 476—482 (3rd edition); Wilson's Catalogue of the Mackenzie Collection, 2 vols. 8vo. Calcutta, 1828; Biographical Sketches of Dekkan Poets, by Cavelly Venkata Ramaswamie, Calcutta, 1829, 8vo.

† The only exception to this remark that could perhaps be adduced, is the poetic Sanscrit Chronicle of Cashmere, an account of which is given by Mr. Wilson in the 16th volume of the Asiatic Researches.

‡ Elephanta Isle, seven miles from Bombay castle, is about six miles in circumference, and composed of two long hills, with a narrow valley between them.

that kind of uncertain and religious awe with which the grander works of ages of darkness are generally contemplated.

'The whole excavation consists of three principal parts; the great temple itself, which is in the centre, and two smaller chapels, one on each side of the great temple. These two chapels do not come forward into a straight line with the front of the chief temple, are not perceived on approaching the temple, and are considerably in recess, being approached by two narrow passes in the hill, one on each side of the grand entrance, but at some distance from it. After advancing to some distance up these confined passes, we find each of them conduct to another front of the grand excavation, exactly like the principal front which is first seen; all the three fronts being hollowed out of the solid rock, and each consisting of two huge pillars with two pilasters. The two side fronts are precisely opposite to each other on the E. and W., the grand entrance facing the N. The two wings of the temple are at the upper end of these passages, and are close by the grand excavation, but have no covered passage to connect them with it.'*

From the northern entrance to the extremity of this cave is about 130½ feet, and from the eastern to the western side 133. Twenty-six pillars, (of which eight are broken,) and 16 pilasters, support the roof. Neither the floor nor the roof is in the same plane, and consequently the height varies, being in some parts 17½, in others 15 feet. Two rows of pillars run parallel to one another from the northern entrance and at right angles to it, to the extremity of the cave; and the pilasters, one of which stands on each side of the two front pillars, are followed by other pilasters and pillars also, forming on each side of the two rows already described, another row, running parallel to them up to the southern extremity of the cave. The pillars on the eastern and western front, which are like those on the northern side, are also continued across from E. to W.; thus the ranges of pillars form a number of parallel lines, intersecting one another at right angles;

* Mr. W. Erskine, in the Bombay Literary Transactions.

the pillars of the central parts being considered as common to the two sets of intersecting lines. The pillars vary both in size and decorations, and all the walls are covered with reliefs referring to Hindoo mythology.

Mr. Mill speaks slightingly (as he generally does of everything Indian) of Elephanta as a cave of no extraordinary structure, and describes the pillars as 'pieces of the rock, as is usual in mining, left at certain distances supporting the superincumbent matter:' but many persons of taste, who have visited Elephanta, entertain a very different opinion. Goldingham mentions among the sculptures the beautiful figure of a youth, and, in another group, a male 'leading a female towards a majestic figure seated in a corner of the niche, his head covered like our judges on the bench; the countenance and attitude of the female highly expressive of modesty, and a timid reluctance.' Further on he adds, 'the part of this surprising monument of human skill and perseverance, hitherto described, is generally called the Great Cave; its length is 135 feet, and its breadth nearly the same.' 'Gigantic as the figures are,' he says, 'the mind is not disagreeably moved on viewing in them a certain indication of the harmony of the proportions. Having measured three or four, and examined the proportions by the scale we allow the most correct, I found many stood even this test, while the disagreements were not equal to what are met with every day in people whom we think by no means ill-proportioned.'* Another traveller, who has left us an entertaining account of Western India, observes that, 'the principal temple and adjoining apartments are 220 feet long, and 150 broad; in these dimensions exceeding the largest work at Salsette;† but being very inferior in height, notwithstanding the numerous and richer decorations at Elephanta, the spectator is constantly reminded of being in a cave. At Salsette, the lofty concave roof and noble columns have a majestic appearance: yet, the observer feels more surprise and admiration at Elephanta

* Goldingham, Asiatic Researches, vol. iv. p. 424—434.

† An island also in Bombay Bay, with an extensive rock-cut temple.

than at Salsette: he beholds four rows of massive columns cut out of the solid rock, uniform in their order, and placed at regular distances, so as to form three magnificent avenues from the principal entrance to the grand idol, which terminates the middle vista; the general effect being heightened by the blueness of the light, or rather gloom, peculiar to the situation. The central image is composed of three colossal heads, reaching nearly from the floor to the roof, a height of 15 feet.'*

The accomplished Heber says, 'the great cavern is deserving all the praise which has been lavished on it.' 'Though my expectations were highly raised, the reality much exceeded them, and both the dimensions, the proportions, and the sculpture seemed to me to be of a much more noble character, and a more elegant execution than I had been led to suppose. Even the statues are executed with great spirit, and are some of them of no common beauty, considering their dilapidated condition, and the coarseness of their material.'†

Of the cave temples of Kennery, in the Island of Salsette, the same excellent authority observes:—'These are, certainly, in every way remarkable from their number, their beautiful situation, their elaborate carving, and their marked connexion with Buddha and his religion. The caves are scattered over two sides of a high rocky hill, at many different elevations, and of various sizes and forms. Most of them appear to have been places of habitation for monks or hermits. One very beautiful apartment, of a square form, its walls covered with sculpture, and surrounded internally by a broad stone bench, is called 'the durbar,' but I should rather guess had been a school. Many have deep and well-carved cisterns attached to them, which, even in this dry season (May) were well supplied with water. The largest and most remarkable of all is a Buddhist temple, of great beauty and majesty, and which even in its present state would make a very stately and convenient place of Christian

* Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 429, 430.

† Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 79, 80.

worship. It is entered through a fine and lofty portico, having on its front, but a little to the left hand, a high detached octagonal pillar, surmounted by three lions seated back to back. On each side of the portico is a colossal statue of Buddha, with his hands raised in the attitude of benediction, and the screen which separates the vestibule from the temple is covered, immediately above the dado, with a row of male and female figures, nearly naked, but not indecent, and carved with considerable spirit, which apparently represent dancers. In the centre of the semicircle, and with a free walk all round it, is a mass of rock left solid, but carved externally like a dome, and so as to bear a strong general likeness to our Saviour's sepulchre, as it is now chiselled away and enclosed in St. Helena's Church at Jerusalem. On the top of the dome is a sort of spreading ornament, like the capital of a column. It is, apparently, intended to support something, and I was afterwards told at Carli, where such an ornament, but of greater size, is likewise found, that a large gilt umbrella used to spring from it. This solid dome appears to be the usual symbol of Buddhist adoration and, with its umbrella ornament, may be traced in the Shoo-Madoo of Pegu, and other more remote structures of the same faith. Though it is different in its form and style of ornament from the Lingam, I cannot help thinking it has been originally intended to represent the same popular object of that almost universal idolatry. The ceiling of this cave is arched semicircularly, and ornamented, in a very singular manner, with slender ribs of teak-wood of the same curve with the roof, and disposed as if they were supporting it, which, however, it does not require, nor are they strong enough to answer the purpose. Their use may have been to hang lamps or flowers from in solemn rejoicings.'*

The celebrated cavern at Carli ' is hewn on the face of a precipice, about two-thirds up the side of a steep hill, rising with a very scarped and regular *talus*, to the height of probably 800 feet above the plain. The excavations consist,

* Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 92—95.

besides the principal temple, of many smaller apartments and galleries, in two stories, some of them ornamented with great beauty, and evidently intended, like those at Kennery, for the lodging of monks or hermits. The temple itself is on the same general plan as that of Kennery, but half as large again, and far finer and richer. It is approached by a steep and narrow path winding up the side of the hill, among trees and brushwood, and fragments of rock. This brought us to a mean and ruinous temple of Siva, which serves as a sort of gateway to the cave. A similar small building stands on the right hand of its portico. The approach to the temple is, like that of Kennery, under a noble arch, filled up with a sort of portico screen, in two stories of three intercolumniations below, and five above. In the front, but a little to the left, is the same kind of pillar as is seen at Kennery, though of larger dimensions, surmounted by three lions back to back. Within the portico, to the right and left, are three colossal figures, in *alto relievo*, of elephants, their faces looking towards the person who arrives in the portico, and their heads, tusks, and trunks very boldly projecting from the wall. On each of them is a *mahout* very well carved, and a howdah with two persons seated in it. The internal screen on each side of the door is covered, as at Kennery, with *alto relievos*, very bold, and somewhat larger than life, of naked male and female figures.' In its general arrangement Carli closely answers to Kennery: but Bishop Heber thought that 'both in dimensions and execution it is much nobler, and more elaborate; and that the capitals of the columns (all of them at least which are not hidden by the chattah at the E. end) are very singular and beautiful. Each consists of a large cap, like a bell, finely carved, and surmounted by two elephants, with their trunks entwined, and each carrying two male and one female figure. The timber ribs which decorate the roof, whatever their use may have been, are very perfect, and have a good effect in the perspective of the interior, which is all extremely clean, and in good repair, and would be, in fact, a very noble temple for any religion.'*

* Heber's Journal, &c. vol. iii. p. 112, 113.

Among the cavern temples of India the most remarkable, perhaps, both for the style of execution and the historical associations connected with them, are those of Ellora, situated near the ancient Hindoo capital of Deoghir, or Tagara, in the province of Aurungabad. Hamilton* justly remarks, that without the aid of numerous plates it would be impossible to render a minute description of these excavations intelligible. The excavations which have, with apparent propriety, been divided into Jain, Buddhist, and Brahminical, are situated in the face of a crescent-shaped hill, about a mile from the little rural village of Ellora. 'The first view of this desolate religious city,' says Mr. Erskine, 'is grand and striking, but melancholy. The number and magnificence of the subterraneous temples, the extent and loftiness of some, the endless diversity of sculpture in others, the variety of curious foliage, of minute tracery, highly wrought pillars, rich mythological designs, sacred shrines, and colossal statues astonish but distract the mind. From their number and diversity, it is impossible to form any idea of the whole; and the first impressions only give way to a wonder not less natural, that such prodigious efforts of labour and skill should remain, from times certainly not barbarous, without a trace to tell us the hand by which they were designed, or the populous and powerful nation by which they were completed. The empire, whose pride they must have been, has passed away, and left not a memorial behind it. The religion to which we owe one part of them, indeed, continues to exist; but that which called into existence the other, like the beings by whose toil is was wrought, has been swept from the land.'

One of the groups of caves which, in contempt, is termed by the Brahmins *Dehr Warra*, or 'the Halâlkhors† Quarter,' has during the rains a very picturesque appearance. The large excavation, according to Sir Charles Malet, is very spacious and handsome, and over the front of it there must rush

* Description of India, vol. ii. p. 148, 149.

† The *Halâlkhors* (i. e. literally, those to whom every thing is lawful food) are the lowest tribe of outcasts. Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 136.

a small river, during the rainy season, into the plain below, forming a sheet of water, which, in a beautiful cascade, covers the façade of the temple as with a curtain of crystal. There are two benches of stone that run parallel to each other along the floor, from the entrance, the whole depth of the cave, the prospect from which, of the great tank, town, and valley of Ellora, is beautiful. These benches appear to have been intended, as in what is called 'the Durbar' at Kennery, as seats either for students, scribes, or the sellers of certain commodities, a convenient passage lying between them up to the idol at the end of the cave.*

Of the Buddhist cave-temple near Buddha-Gaya, in Bahar, no very minute or elaborate description exists. The hill in which it is hewn lies about 14 miles from Gaya, and appears to be one entire mass of granite, rough, craggy, and precipitous in its ascent. 'The cave is situated on its southern declivity, about two-thirds from the summit: a tree immediately before it prevents its being seen from the bottom. It has only one narrow entrance from the S., two feet and a half in breadth, and six feet high, and of thickness exactly equal. This leads to a room of an oval form, with a vaulted roof, 44 feet in length from E. to W., 18½ feet in breadth, and 10¼ in height at the centre. This immense cavity is dug entirely out of the solid rock, and is exceedingly well polished, but without any ornament. The same stone extends much

* Asiatic Researches, vol. vi. p. 423. The reader, desirous of studying the details of these extraordinary caverns, may consult the elaborate description of Sir C. Malet. Ib. p. 382—423; Transactions of the Bombay Literary Society, articles ix. and xv.; Fitzclarence's Journal of a Route across India, p. 193—213; Seely, the Wonders of Ellora, Lond. 1824; Daniell's Picturesque Voyage to India, Lond. 1810; Langlès, Monumens anciens et modernes de l'Inde, en 150 planches, Paris, 1813; Trans. of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. ii. p. 326, &c. In the 'Modern Traveller,' an unpretending but clever compilation, the contributions of various authorities have been abridged with much pains, India, vol. iv. p. 287—305. Anquetil Duperron has left us an elaborate description of the excavations in his Preliminary Discourse to the Zend Avesta, tom. i. p. 233—249.

farther than the excavated part, on each side of it, and is altogether, I imagine, full an hundred feet in length.'*

Of all these cavern temples, by far the greater number bear evident marks of having been originally consecrated to the worship of Siva, and his consort Bhavani; whose symbols, the Yoni, the Lingam, and the Bull, occupy the sanctuary of the edifice, or are at least discernible among it principal ornaments. (See *Religion of the Hindoos.*)

Among the most beautiful of the shrines of India is that which the Jains, who have been termed the Deists of Hindostan, have erected to the Supreme God in the mountain city of Comulmere in Rajast'han. The design of this temple, according to Col. Tod, is truly classic. It consists only of the sanctuary, which has a vaulted dome and colonnaded portico all round. The architecture is undoubtedly Jain, which is as distinct in character from the Brahminical as their religion. There is a chasteness and simplicity in this specimen of monotheistic worship, affording a wide contrast to the elaborately sculptured shrines of the Sivas and other polytheists of India. The extreme want of decoration best attests its antiquity, entitling us to attribute it to that period when Sumpriti Raja, of the family of Chandragupta, was paramount sovereign over all these regions (200 years before Christ); to whom tradition ascribes the most ancient monuments of this faith, yet existing in Rajast'han and Saurashtra. The proportions and forms of the columns are especially distinct from the other temples, being slight and tapering instead of massive, the general characteristic of Hindoo architecture;

* J. H. Harrington, Asiatic Researches, vol. i. p. 276—278. Of the antiquity or history of this cavern nothing is known. Dr. Francis Buchanan Hamilton, who has given a description of Buddha Gaya in the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, (vol. ii. p. 40—51,) thinks it probable that part of the ruins may be as ancient as the local tradition would make them, viz. coeval with the age of Buddha; but that the great edifice still existing, though in the last stage of decay, is of far more recent date, and perhaps not older than the tenth century of the Christian era. A Sanscrit inscription found at Gaya has been translated by Sir Charles Wilkins. See Asiatic Researches, i. 278—285.

while the projecting cornices, which would absolutely deform shafts less light, are peculiarly indicative of the Takshac architect. Sumpriti was the fourth prince in descent from Chandragupta, of the Jain faith, and the ally of Seleucus, the Grecian sovereign of Bactriana. The fragments of Megasthenes, ambassador from Seleucus, record that this alliance was most intimate; that the daughter of the Rajpoot king was married to Seleucus, who in return for elephants and other gifts, sent a body of Greek soldiers to serve Chandragupta. It is curious to contemplate the possibility, nay the probability, that the Jain temple now before the reader may have been designed by Grecian artists, or that the taste of the artists among the Rajpoots may have been modelled after the Grecian.'*

Col. Tod describes another sacred structure in its vicinity, likewise Jain, but of a distinct character; indeed, offering a perfect contrast to that described. It was three stories in height; each tier decorated with numerous massive low columns, resting on a sculptured pannelled parapet, and sustaining the roof of each story, which being very low, admitted but a broken light to chase the pervading gloom. He imagines that the sacred architects of the E. had studied effect equally with the preservers of learning and the arts in the dark period of Europe, when those monuments, which must ever be her pride, arose on the ruins of paganism. How far the Saxon or Scandinavian pagan contributed to the general design of such structures may be doubted; but that their decorations, particularly the grotesque, have a powerful resemblance to the most ancient Hindoo-Scythic, there is no question.

No sect of Hindoos have exhibited so much architectural genius as the Jains. Everywhere, at least so far as our experience extends, where their comparatively pure religion has prevailed, monuments of simple grandeur, or of elaborate elegance, have remained, a testimony of their proficiency in the arts. At Benares, indeed, in the midst of shrines and

* Colonel Tod, Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 670, 671.

temples of remarkable beauty, the sacred building of the Jains has little to distinguish it beyond the diminutive gilt cupola by which the roof is surmounted; but the Brahmins are here so powerful, and their enemies, for such are the Jains, so much at their mercy, that it is more surprising they should possess any place of worship at all, than that it should be destitute of magnificence. Wherever this sect, free from the apprehension of persecution, have deemed it prudent to indulge their natural taste, the case is different. Even in the small obscure town of Mouzabad in Rajpootana, Bishop Heber found their temple richly sculptured, with a beautifully carved dome, and three lofty pyramids of carved stone spring from the roof.* At Calingera, a small village between Neemuch and Baroda, the same traveller observed the most spacious and elegant structure of the kind which he had anywhere seen in India. It was entered by a projecting portico, which led to an open vestibule covered by a dome. Numerous domes and pyramids, surmounting as many small chapels or sanctuaries, adorned the roof, and along its several fronts ran elegantly carved verandahs, supported by slender columns. 'The domes are admirably constructed, and the execution of the whole building greatly superior to what might have been expected in such a situation. Its splendour of architecture, and its present deserted condition, were accounted for by the Thannadar, from the fact that Calingera had been a place of much traffic, and the residence of many rich traders of the Jain sect.'†

At the city of Cairah, in Guzerat, there is a Jain temple, which, though distinguished by its striking façade, depressed domes and pyramidal sikharas, is chiefly rendered remarkable by a piece of curious mechanism which it contains. 'Near the centre of the town are a large Jain temple and school, the former consisting of many small apartments up and down stairs, and even under ground, with a good deal of gaudy ornament, and some very beautiful carving in a dark wood like

* Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. ii. p. 429, 430.

† Ditto, ditto, p. 529

oak. In one of the upper rooms is a piece of mechanism, something like those moving clockwork groups of kings, armies, gods and goddesses, which are occasionally carried about our own country by Italians and Frenchmen, in which sundry divinities dance and salam with a sort of musical accompaniment. These figures are made chiefly of the same black wood which I have described. What they last showed us was a cellar under ground, approached by a very narrow passage, and containing on an altar of the usual construction, the four statues of sitting men, which are the most frequent and peculiar objects of Jain idolatry. They are of white marble, but had (as seems to have been the case with many of the images of ancient Greece) their eyes of silver, which gleamed in a very dismal and ghostly manner in the light of a solitary lamp which was burning before them, aided by a yet dimmer ray which penetrated from above through two narrow apertures, like flues in the vaulting. We were very civilly conducted over the whole of the building by one of the junior priests, the senior pundit of the place remaining, as if absorbed in heavenly things, immoveable and silent during the whole of our stay. While I was in the temple a good many worshippers entered, chiefly women, each of whom, first touching one of the bells which hung from the roof, bent to the ground before one or other of the idols, depositing in some instances flowers of sugar candy before it.'*

A splendid Jain temple, on the summit of a mountain, is thus described by Lieutenant Burnes, in one of his interesting papers read before the Calcutta Asiatic Society:—

The mountain of *Abú*, *Abujé*, or *Abúghad*, is situated near the 25th degree of N. lat., in the district of *Sekrúl* and province of *Marwár*, about 40 miles N.E. by E. of the camp of *Désa*. The magnificent temples are erected at the small village of *Delwarra*, about the centre of the mountain, which has an elevation of about 5,000 feet, where the summit is extremely irregular and studded with peaked hills. There are four in number, all of marble, and two of them of the richest

* Narrative of a Journey, vol. i. p. 386; ii. 430, 526—530; iii. 48, 49.

kind. They are dedicated to *Párasnáth*, or 'the principal of the deified saints, who, according to their creed, have successively become superior gods,' and who are believed to amount to the number of 24, or as some say, to have appeared, like Hindú gods, in 24 different Avatárs. These are the gods of the *Jain*, Shráwak, or Banian castes, who are a gloomy tribe of atheistical ascetics, not unlike the Buddhists, 'who deny the authority of God, and a future state; believe that, as the trees in an uninhabited forest spring up without cultivation, so the universe is self-existent; and that the world, in short, is produced, as the spider produces his web, out of its own bowels; and that, as the banks of a river fall of themselves, there is no supreme destroyer:—they also deny the divine authority of the Védas, and worship the great Hindú gods as minor deities only.'

The building is in the figure of an oblong square, 44 paces long by 22 wide (or perhaps 100 feet by 50); within the building, and in the centre of the area so enclosed, stands the pagoda, in which the great image of the god is placed facing eastwards. In front of this there is an octagon of 24 feet, supporting, on pillars and arches of marble, a cupola of the same. The pillars may be from 12 to 15 feet high. The entrance to the temple is from a small door opposite this cupola, and the grandeur of the building is discoverable at once on entering it, and has a very imposing effect. On all sides of the area there is a colonnade, the long sides having a double row of pillars supporting small domes, within each of which are cells in the walls to the number of 56, in all of which are marble images of the god. In the S.W. corner, and in a chamber detached from the building, is a colossal figure of *Néminάth*, in black stone. The whole of the building is of the richest white marble, superbly cut into numerous devices: and it is worthy of remark that there is not an inch of stone unornamented, and not two domes of the same pattern, though 133 in number, and all carved. The grand dome is a most chaste piece of workmanship, and so light do the pillars appear, that it could hardly be imagined

they could support the superincumbent weight. Adjoining to this building is a room, called '*Háthesál*,' or the elephant hall, which seems once to have also had a roof of domes, and in which are the figures of 10 marble elephants with drivers, each about four feet high, caparisoned in the modern style of those of the native princes, with every rope, tassel, and cloth, beautifully and correctly carved, and apparently (the cars and riders excepted) from one block of marble. The workmanship is exceedingly good, and the representation of the animal is very superior to Indian sculpture in general. The floor of this room is of black marble, while that of the temple is of white. At the door is a large equestrian statue of the founder, who, by an inscription, is described as '*Bimalnáth*, a *banian* of *Chandouli*, to whom the gods had been propitious.' It is rudely executed, and is evidently the work of later days.

The next temple to be described is the northern one, which is dedicated to *Neminάth*, the 22d deified saint of the *Jains*. It is, with regard to design and material, as the one mentioned, but although of equal length it is 10 paces wider, from which addition the architect has been able to make the colonnade double on all sides without contracting the area too much, and which has a good effect. The pagoda of the god is in the centre, and faces the W. It has also a cupola in front of it, the same as the other in size, though far inferior in execution: but the greatest ornament in this temple, and indeed on Abú, is a portico between this cupola and the pagoda. It is supported by pillars, and the roof is formed by nine small domes most exquisitely carved. The stones on both sides the entrance of the temple are deeper cut than any marble Lieut. Burnes ever saw, and approached in resemblance to Hogarth's line of beauty. This part of the building is said to have cost 18 lacs of rupees. The E. side of the building is divided into two compartments, but consists of one long room in which are placed 10 marble elephants, which are more minutely carved than those described, the very twisting of the ropes being represented. In rear of these are the images of the different contributors to the

'Holy undertaking,' rudely cut out in stone, and represented as holding purses full of money ready to be appropriated. There are inscriptions under all these figures, mentioning the names of the different 'pious individuals,' most of whom appear to have been Banians.*

But these provincial temples, compared with those of the capitals of Western India, are no more than so many village churches placed in juxta-position with Westminster Abbey or St. Paul's. The bigotry of the Patans and Moguls, whom Colonel Tod very properly denominates the Goths and Vandals of Rajast'han, has deprived the lovers of the fine arts in Hindostan of many a beautiful relic of nobler days and noblest arts; but a few exquisite structures have survived their indiscriminating rage, and of these one of the most perfect, as well as one of the most ancient specimens is found in the city of Ajmere. This noble monument of Hindoo architecture stands on the western declivity of the fortress. It is termed by the natives, 'the shed of two and a half days,' for they imagine it to have been the work of magic, and to have been completed within that time. 'The temple is surrounded by a superb screen of Saracenic architecture, having the main front and gateway to the north. From its simplicity, as well as its appearance of antiquity, I am inclined to assign the screen to the first dynasty, the Ghorian sultans, who evidently employed native architects. The entrance arch is of that wavy kind, characteristic of what is termed the Saracenic, whether the term be applied to the Alhambra of Spain, or the Mosques of Delhi; and I am disposed, on close examination, to pronounce it Hindoo. The entire façade of this noble entrance is covered with Arabic inscriptions. But unless my eyes much deceived me, the small frieze over the apex of the arch contained an inscription in Sanscrit, with which Arabic has been commingled, both being unintelligible. The remains of a minaret still maintain their position on the right flank of the *muezzin* to call the faithful to prayers. The design is chaste and beautiful, and the material, which is a compact limestone of a yellow colour, admitting almost of as high a

* See Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

polish as the *jaune antique*, gave abundant scope to the sculptor. After confessing and admiring the taste of the Vandal architect, we passed under the arch to examine the more noble production of the Hindoo. Its plan is simple, and consonant with the more ancient temples of the Jains. It is an extensive saloon, the ceiling supported by a quadruple range of columns, those of the centre being surmounted by a range of vaulted coverings; while the lateral portion, which is flat, is divided into compartments of the most elaborate sculpture. But the columns are most worthy of attention; they are unique in design, and with the exception of the cave-temples, probably among the oldest now existing in India. On examining them, ideas entirely novel, even in Hindoo art, are developed. Like all these portions of Hindoo architecture, their ornaments are very complex, and the observer will not fail to be struck with their dissimilarity: it was evidently a rule in the art to make the ornaments of every part unlike the other, and which I have seen carried to a great extent. There may be forty columns, but not two alike. The ornaments of the base are peculiar, both as to form and execution; the lozenges, with the rich tracery surmounting them, might be transferred, not inappropriately to the Gothic cathedrals of Europe. The projections from various parts of the shaft, (which, on a small scale, may be compared to the corresponding projections of the columns in the *duomo* at Milan,) with the small niches still containing the statues, though occasionally mutilated, of the pontiffs of the Jains, give them a character which strengthens the comparison, and which would be yet more apparent, if we could afford to engrave the details. The elegant Camacumpa, the emblem of the Hindoo Ceres, with its pendant palmyra-branches, is here lost, as are many emblematical ornaments, curious in design, and elegant in their execution. Here and there occurs a richly carved corbeille, which still farther sustains the analogy between the two systems of architecture; and the capitals are at once strong and delicate; the central vault, which is the largest, is constructed after the same fashion as that described at Nadole; but the concentric annulets which in that are plain, in this are one

blaze of ornaments, which, with the whole of the ceiling, is too elaborate and complicated for description. Under the most retired of the compartments, and nearly about the centre, is raised the mumba, or pulpit, whence the Moollah enunciates the dogma, of Mohammed, 'There is but one God:' and from which he dispossessed the Jain, whose creed was like his own, the unity of the Godhead. But this is in unison with the feeling which dictated the external metamorphosis.'*

These details mark sufficiently the high degree of civilization that existed at a former period in India; under the Mahomedan dynasties we have attested the advanced state of the architectural art in the beautiful Taje Mehal, composed entirely of white marble, inlaid with precious stones,—the splendid Jumna Musjeed at Delhi, the elegant Cuttub Minar pillar,† the palace of Shah Jehan, and the Mausoleum of Acbar; while in the South we have the magnificent Hindoo temples of Tanjore, Madura, &c.

FINE ARTS.—*Sculpture.*—The art of sculpture appears at a very early period to have occupied the Hindoos. In their choice of subjects they were necessarily much influenced by the nature of their religious opinions, but there are numerous exceptions; and among these must be reckoned various specimens of ancient sculpture still found in the dilapidated city of Mahâmalaipur, situate near the sea, at a distance of about 35 English miles S. of Madras. 'The rock, or hill of stone, is that which first engrosses the attention on approaching the place, for as it rises abruptly out of a level plain of great extent, consists chiefly of one single stone, and is situated very near to the sea-beach, it is such a kind of object as an inquisitive traveller would turn aside to examine. Its shape is also

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 779, 780.

† In 1794 the Cuttub Minar (built 300 years ago) was described as having for its base a polygon of 27 sides, rising in a circular form, the exterior fluted into 27 semi-circular and angular divisions: there were four balconies at successive elevations of 90, 140, 180, and 203 feet; the total height being 242; an irregular spiral staircase led from the bottom to the summit of the Minar, which was crowned with a majestic cupola of red granite, which has since fallen in.

singular and romantic, and, from a distant view, has an appearance like some antique and lofty edifice. On coming near to the foot of the rock, on the N., works of imagery and sculpture crowd so thick upon the eye as might seem to favour the idea of a petrified city, like those that have been fabled in different parts of the world by too credulous travellers.'* On the smooth faces of the rock are sculptured, some in basso, others in alto, relievo, numerous figures of gods and heroes, some indistinct, and defaced by the action of the sea air, others fresh, as if newly executed. As far as can be collected from the accounts of travellers, who have bestowed far too little attention on the subject, the ancient sculptors, who adorned this remarkable city with their labours, were men of undoubted genius, capable, by their productions, of conferring pleasure, not only on their comparatively rude contemporaries, but even on men of refined judgment and taste in the present critical age. Bishop Heber bears a very favourable testimony to the degree of skill displayed in the sculptures of Mahâmalaipur; he observes that the 'rocks, which in themselves are pretty and picturesque, are carved out into porticoes, temples, bas-reliefs, &c. on a much smaller scale indeed than Elephanta or Kenneri, *but some of them very beautifully executed.*' They differ from those of the N. and W. of India (which are almost all dedicated to Siva or Cali) in being in honour of Vishnu, whose different avatars are repeated over and over in the various temples, while he only saw the solitary lingam, if it be one, and one unfinished cave, which struck him as intended for a temple of the 'destroying power.' Many of the bas-reliefs are of great spirit and beauty; there is one of an elephant with two young ones, strikingly executed, and the general merit of the work is superior to that of Elephanta, though the size is extremely inferior.†

* Asiatic Researches, vol. i. p. 147.

† Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 217. Mr. Goldingham, a competent judge, agrees with Bishop Heber in considering the execution of the lions as very inferior, as well as in bestowing considerable praise on

The bas-reliefs on the walls of Malicarji's pagoda at Perwuttum, may be considered in many respects as some of the most extraordinary specimens of art in all India. 'The first and lowest row of these stones,' says Captain Mackenzie, 'is covered with figures of elephants, harnessed in different ways, as if led in procession, many of them twisting up trees with their trunks. The second row is chiefly occupied with equestrian subjects; horses led ready saddled, and their manes ornamented; others tied up to pillars, some loose; a great many horsemen are represented engaged in fight, at full gallop, and armed with pikes, swords and shields; others are seen hunting the tiger, and running it through with long spears. The riders are represented very small in proportion to the horses, probably to distinguish the size of the latter, as a smaller cast seems intended to be represented among the led horses, where a few are seen lower in size, something resembling the Acheen breed of horses. All these figures are very accurately designed. It is remarkable, that several figures are represented galloping off as in flight, and at the same time drawing the bow at full stretch: these Parthian figures seem to have entirely dropped the bridle, both hands being occupied by the bow; some of them are seen advancing at full speed, and drawing the bow at the same time. This mode appears to have been practised by the Indians, as it is highly probable that the arts of common life only are here represented, in the lower row. On the third row a variety of figures are represented, many of them hunting pieces; tigers, and in one place a lion, attacked by several persons; crowds of people appear on foot, many armed with bows and arrows, like the Chinsuars; many figures of Virâgis, or Yogis, are seen distinguished by large turbans, carrying their sticks, pots, and bundles, as if coming from a journey: some leaning

the style in which the bas-reliefs are sculptured. Even in the representation of female beauty, the artists of Mahâmalaipur had attained a high degree of skill. 'The figure and action of the goddess (Bhavani) are executed,' says Mr. Goldingham, 'in a masterly and spirited style.' Asiatic Researches, vol. v. p. 71.

on a stick as if tired, or decrepit from age; others approaching with a mien of respect and adoration. The fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh rows are filled (as it would appear from the scanty information I was able to obtain) with representations of several events regarding the deities of the place, or expressive allegories of the moral and religious dogmas of the Brahmins; and probably some may record particular events of real history. The eighth has fewer carvings than the rest; some stones are occupied by a single flower, of large size, perhaps intended for the lotos; and some, though but a few, by the figure of a god. The ninth, or upper row, is cut into openings, in the manner of battlements; and the stones between each of these apertures are alternately sculptured with the figures of the lingam, and a cow shaded by an umbrella, to signify its preeminence.'* Mr. Hunter saw at Oojein the images of Râma, Lacshâmana, Sîta, and Râdha, in white marble, and the statue of Krishna, in black, which were all executed with ability.

Painting appears to have been less assiduously cultivated in India than sculpture, at least so far as there are the specimens extant. Forbes, an enlightened lover of the arts, and himself a painter, having bestowed high praise on the architecture of the principal temple at Chandode, observes that 'the interior of the dome is forty feet in diameter, the concave painted by artists from Ahmedabad, on subjects in the Hindoo mythology. They are done in distemper, which is very durable in that climate; but the drawing is bad, and the style altogether hard, incorrect, and deficient in the effect of light and shade: a light and dark shade seem indeed to be all they are acquainted with. The modern artists have no idea of middle tints, or the harmony of colouring. The outline, though greatly inferior in proportion and line of beauty, bears some resemblance to the ancient Greek and Etruscan vases.'†

* Account of the pagoda at Perwuttum, A.R. vol. v. p. 311, 312. See also, in vol. vi. p. 433, the same writer's remarks on the images found in Ceylon. Journey from Agra to Oojein, A.R. vol. vi. p. 40.

† Oriental Memoirs, vol. iii. p. 16.

Portrait painting seems to have been long fashionable in Hindoostan. I have seen in the houses of wealthy Hindoos well executed portraits in oil, and some on glass: Colonel Tod, relating the history of Sanga Rana, observes, 'I possess his portrait, given to me by the present Rana, who has a collection of full-lengths of all his royal ancestors, from Samarsi to himself, of their exact heights, and with every bodily peculiarity, whether of complexion or form. They are valuable for the costume.'

The Hindoos, like the Chinese, copy with great exactness, even from nature; but their portraits, both of individuals and of groups, are peculiarly devoid of grace and expression —they want the touch of genius. I do not, however agree with Mr. Mill, that they are 'entirely without a knowledge of perspective; and by consequence of all those finer and nobler parts of the art of painting which have perspective for their requisite basis.'*

Speaking of the interior of the palace of Jeypoor, Bishop Heber remarks, that the 'ceilings are generally low, and the rooms dark and close; both the walls and ceilings are, however, splendidly carved and painted, and some of the former are entirely composed of small looking-glasses, in fantastic frames of chunam mixed with talc, which have the appearance of silver, till closely examined. The subjects of the paintings are almost entirely mythological; and their stile of colouring, their attitudes, and the general gloomy silence and intricacy of the place, reminded me frequently of Belzoni's model of the Egyptian tomb.'†

The *music* of the Hindoos is certainly not in accordance with our ideas of harmony, though the Hindoos appear to be as much affected by it as a connoisseur at the Italian Opera. Sir William Ousely amuses his readers with a few of the marvellous stories related by the Hindoos of the effects of their ancient music, and of the decline of taste among themselves. 'On the subject of those ancient and extraordinary melodies,'

* History of British India, vol. ii. p. 35, 36.

† Narrative, vol. ii. p. 404.

says he, 'which the Hindoos call *râgs* and *râginîs*, the popular traditions are so numerous and romantic as the powers ascribed to them are miraculous. Of the six raugs, the first five owe their origin to the god Mahâdeva (Siva,) who produced them from his five heads. Parvati, his wife, constructed the sixth; and the thirty râginîs were composed by Brahma. Thus, of celestial invention, these melodies are of a peculiar genus; and, of the three ancient genera of the Greeks, resemble most the *enharmonic;* the more modern compositions are of that species termed *diatonic.*

'A considerable difficulty is found in setting to music the râgs and râginîs, as our system does not supply notes or signs sufficiently expressive of the almost imperceptible elevations and depressions of the voice in these melodies, of which the time is broken and irregular, the modulations frequent, and very wild. Whatever magic was in the touch when Orpheus swept his lyre, or Timotheus filled his softly-breathing flute, the effects said to have been produced by two of the six râgs are even more extraordinary than any of those ascribed to the modes of the ancients. Mir Tansine, a wonderful musician in the time of the emperor Acbar, sung one of the night-râgs at mid-day: the powers of his music were such that it instantly became night; and the darkness extended in a circle round the palace as far as the sound of his voice could be heard. I shall say little on the tradition of Naik Gopâl, another celebrated musician in the reign of Acbar, who was commanded by the emperor to sing the râg *dîpaka*; which, whoever attempted to sing, should be destroyed by fire. The story is long: Naik Gopâl flew to the river Jumna, and plunged himself up to the neck in water, where Acbar determined to prove the power of this râg, compelled the unfortunate musician to sing it, when, notwithstanding his situation in the river, flames burst violently from his body, and consumed him to ashes.

'These, and other anecdotes of the same nature, are related by many of the Hindoos, and implicitly believed by some. The effect produced by the *maig multar râg,* was immediate rain: and it is told, that a singing girl once, by ex-

erting the powers of her voice in this râg, drew down from the clouds timely and refreshing showers on the parched rice-crops of Bengal, and thereby adverted the horrors of famine from the *paradise of regions*. An European in that country, inquiring after those whose musical performance might produce similar effects, was answered, 'that the art is now almost lost; but that there are still musicians possessed of those wonderful powers in the W. of India.' If one inquires in the W. they say, 'that if any such performers remain, they are to be found only in Bengal.'

'Of the present music, and the sensations it excites, one can speak with greater accuracy. Many of the Hindoo melodies possess the plaintive simplicity of the Scotch and Irish, and others a wild originality, pleasing beyond description.* Counterpoint seems not to have entered, at any time, into the system of Indian music. It is not alluded to in the manuscript treatises which I have hitherto perused; nor have I discovered that any of our ingenious orientalists speak of it as being known in Hindoostan.'

In Mr. Wilson's translation of a Sanscrit play entitled Mrichchhacati, or 'The Toy-cart,' and supposed to have been written about a century before our era, we find the following beautiful lines on the *vîna*, or Hindoo lute :—

> "Although not ocean born,† the tuneful vîna
> Is most assuredly a gem of heaven—
> Like a dear friend it cheers the lonely heart,
> And lends new lustre to the social meeting.
> It lulls the pain that absent lovers feel,
> And adds fresh impulse to the glow of passion."

Domestic Arts.—Compared with England, the Hindoos have effected few improvements in the instruments of social economy. A Bengal plough is the most simple instrument

* The Hindoos take delight in the favourite Persian air of—*'Tazzi putaża—I ben Oh.'*

† An allusion to the legend of the churning of the ocean by the gods and demons, at which various personages and precious articles, called *ratnas*, or "gems," variously enumerated, were recovered from the deep.

imaginable: it consists of a crooked piece of wood, sharpened at one end, and covered with a plate of iron, which forms the ploughshare. A wooden handle, about two feet long, is fixed to the other end cross-ways; and in the midst is a long straight piece of wood, or bamboo, called *ísha*, which goes between the bullocks, and falls on the middle of the yoke, to which it hangs by means of a peg, and is tied by a string. The yoke is a neat instrument, and lies over the neck of two bullocks, just before the hump, and has two pegs descending on the side of each bullock's neck, by means of which it is tied with a cord under the throat. There is only one man or boy to each plough, who with one hand holds the plough, and with the other guides the animals, by pulling them this or that way by the tail, and driving them forward with a stick.

The separating of the grain from the chaff is performed by two or more bullocks fastened together, side by side, and driven round upon a quantity of sheaves spread on the ground, by which means about 30 *maunds** will be trodden out in three hours. The Bengal farmers generally 'muzzle the ox in treading out the corn,' until the upper sheaves have been reduced to mere straw. The rice is then cleared from the husk by large handfans, one person letting the grain fall from his hands, while another winnows it. It is next deposited in granaries, or sent to the corn-merchant. The straw is piled up in stacks for the cattle, the use of hay being unknown. The scythe has not hitherto been introduced into Bengal, where even grass is cut with the sickle. The grinding mills are generally the common hand stones, turned chiefly by women, but the following is an account of a simple mill used in the mountain streams in the N. Doab: it consists of a horizontal water-

See Wilson's Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindoos, vol. i. p. 59, 60, (2d edit. London, 1835, 8vo.)

* The *maund* is equal to 74 pounds and two-thirds in Bengal; 37 pounds and a half at Surat; 28 pounds at Anjengo; and 25 at Madras. Rousseau's Persian Dictionary, *s. v.* Ward makes it 80 pounds, and observes that 320 pounds of rice in the husk are sometimes sold for a rupee! Vol. i. p. 106.

wheel, with floats placed obliquely so as to receive a stream of water from a shorter funnel, the flat board being fixed in a vertical axle passing through the lower mill-stone, and held to the upper one by a short iron bar at right angles, causing it to revolve with the water-wheel; the axle itself having a pivot working on a piece of the hardest stone that can be procured at hand,—this, with a thatched roof, and the expense or trouble of digging a cut so as to take advantage of a fall of water, is all that is required.

In the N.W. and dry provinces of India, a simple but effective mode of irrigation is adopted. 'In Rajpootana,' says Col. Tod, 'from the margin of the stream on each side to the mountain's base, they have constructed a series of terraces rising over each other, whence by simple and ingenious methods they raise the waters to irrigate the rich crops of sugar-cane, cotton, and rice, which they cultivate upon them. Wherever soil could be found, or time decomposed these primitive rocks, a barrier was raised. When discovered, should it be in a hollow below, or on the summit of a crag, it is alike greedily seized on: even there water is found, and if you leave the path below and ascend a 100 feet above the terraces, you will discover pools or reservoirs dammed in with massive trees, which serve to irrigate such insulated spots, or as nurseries to the young rice plants. A patch of ground, for which the cultivator pays six rupees rent, will produce sugar-cane 600 rupees in value.*

Among Hindoo implements of husbandry is an excellent instrument in the form of a hoe, with a handle about two feet and a half long, and the iron as wide and as strong as a spade, called a *kuddala*, which answers the purpose of a spade and hoe.

The Indian loom, though much more simple and imperfect, is in substance the same as the English. The frame is laid almost on the ground, in which a hole is cut to receive the

* It is not true, as some writers suppose, that the Hindoos never manure their lands: in Canara leaves are strewed over the fields and ploughed up; in Nagpoor (where the mode of ploughing answers Dr. Tennant's description,) they use manure to a great amount, particularly in the cultivation of

feet of the weaver while at work. Women of all castes are engaged in the preparation of the cotton-thread. The finest muslins are manufactured at Dacca, Shantipoor, Sonarga, and Vicrampoor, where the price of a single piece, which occupies the weaver four months, sometimes amounts to 400 or 500 rupees. When this muslin is laid on the grass, and the dew has fallen upon it, it is no longer discernible. Tavernier relates that the ambassador of Shah Sefi, on his return from India, presented his master with a cocoa-nut, set with jewels, containing a muslin turban, 60 covits, or 30 English yards, in length, so exquisitely fine that it could scarcely be felt by the touch; indeed, the manufacture of no modern nation can, in delicacy and fineness, vie with the textures of Hindoostan.

The common kinds are also preferred, on the score of enduring great hardships, and retaining their whiteness better; and in respect to the coloured or prohibited goods, for the foreign markets, they will always retain their superiority. In the article of Guinea stuffs manufactured at Surat, and in request on the coast of Africa, many attempts have been made to imitate them, particularly by the French, but in vain. The Moors discover merely by the touch whether they have been manufactured in Europe or India; nor is it even to their feel and colour that they chiefly trust; they assertain by their smell, as the indigo with which they are dyed gives them a peculiar smell which cannot be imitated.'*

'The cotton manufactures of India seem anciently to have been as much admired as they are at present, not only for their delicate texture, but for the elegance with which some of them are embroidered, and the beautiful colour of the flowers with which others are adorned. From the earliest period of European intercourse with India, that country has been distinguished for the number and excellence of the sub-

sugar, the betal leaf, and tobacco. For this purpose the dung of sheep and other animals is used. In the culture of cotton the ground is manured with wood-ashes. Rept. 1830, p. 147, 211, 322.

* Oriental Commerce, p. 297.

stances for dyeing various colours, with which it abounded.* The dye of the deep blue colour, in highest estimation among the Romans, bore the name of *Indicum*.† From India, too, the substance used in dyeing a bright red colour seems to have been imported; and it is well know that both in the cotton and silk stuffs which we now receive from India, the blue and the red are the colours of most conspicuous lustre and beauty.'‡

The tradesmen of India are numerous. Among the inferior classes, the *Napitas*, or 'barbers,' claim a distinguished place, as, like their ancient brethren of Europe, they unite a certain knowledge of pharmacy with the art and mystery of shaving. No Hindoo, even of the poorest class, ever shaves himself, or cuts his own nails; and there are numbers who disdain even to clean their own ears, which operation falls to the lot of the barbers, who may be seen in the streets, seeking employment, with an instrument like a skewer, covered at one end with cotton, in their hands. The rich are usually shaved daily, the middling ranks once a week, the poor once in a fortnight. The operation is generally performed in the street, or under a tree, and the operator receives for his pains, from the poor a farthing, and from the rich double that sum. The wives of the barbers, who in France both shave and cut hair, are condemned in India to operate on their own sex only, for whom they cut the nails of both fingers and toes, and stain the feet and hands with *henna*.

The *confectioners* of India, who are in great request, make and vend nearly a hundred sorts of sweetmeats, principally composed of sugar, molasses, flour, and spices, no fruit, excepting the cocoa-nut, being ever used in these delicacies, which are in great request among the Hindoos. It is very interesting to drive along the Chitpore road at Calcutta on an evening, and examine the confectioners shops, piled with every variety of cakes and sweetmeats, while smoking fires at

* Strabo, lib. xv. c. 1, p. 694, ed. Casaub.
† Plin. Nat. Hist. lib. xxxv. c. 6, § 27.
‡ Robertson, Dissertation, &c. App. § 4.

the very edge of the bazaar or shops, send forth a savoury odour of refreshing delicacies.

The *potters* caste are numerous and varied; for besides manufacturing earthenware of different kinds, they plaster houses with clay, make bricks, tiles, spouts, balustrades, together with those little images, which, having been worshipped during certain days, are cast into the pools or rivers. Toys, also, as birds, horses, gods, coaches, and elephants, which are painted and gilt, are the work of the potter.

Blacksmiths are numerous, they make arrows, bill-hooks, the *kuddala*, or spade-hoe, the axe, the farmer's weeding knife, the ploughshare, the sickle, the hook to lift up the corn while the oxen are treading it out: besides nails, locks, keys, knives, chains, scissors, razors, cooking utensils, builder's and joiner's tools, instruments of war, &c.

Flower-sellers are found in great numbers in Hindoostan. It is a part of their business to make wedding crowns, together with the lamps and artificial flowers which are carried in marriage processions. They likewise work in gardens, and manufacture gunpowder and fire-works. Hindoo *joiners* were formerly a very rude and ignorant race, possessing no knowledge of the rule, compass or gimlet, or, indeed, of more than ten of those implements which compose a joiner's chest of tools; but they are now richer in tools, and more skilful in the use of them. They make idols, bedsteads, window-frames, doors, boxes, seats, pillars for houses, delineate the figures of idols* on boards, paint images, and sometimes engage in masonry.

The *Rajakas*, or "washermen," are a numerous caste. They were ignorant until recently, of the use of soap, and to this day make use of a wash composed chiefly of the ashes of the plantain, or of the *argemone mexicana*. The linen having been steeped in the wash, and boiled, is dipped repeatedly in water, and then beaten with a heavy mallet on

* The heraldry of Europe has evidently derived its origin from the East; and it was intimately associated with religion and superstition. Maurice observes, that by the same hardy race—the descendants of the Tartar

a board, which is generally placed by the side of a pool or river. And this method, though somewhat adverse to the duration of linen, renders it much whiter than our own.

The *Suvarnakâras*, or 'goldsmiths,' display no small ingenuity in Bengal. Bishop Heber, says 'the goldsmiths of Kutch and Kattywâr emboss very neatly, by filling the cup, watch-case, box, or other vessel, with gum-lac, and punching it in, to the figure required, with a small chisel. Major Sale shewed me a watch-case and a small tankard, very prettily ornamented in this manner, with flowers, elephants, and different birds and animals.' As ornaments of gold and silver are much worn by the Hindoos of both sexes, whether young or old, this is a flourishing caste. Distillers, though they employ a rude apparatus, produce excellent arrack, and the Nagas and other tribes brew good beer.

Few castes of Hindoos are more despised than the *Shoemakers*, principally because they work up the skin of the cow, and may thus be suspected of indirectly encouraging the slaughter of that sacred animal. However, though despised and not allowed to get drunk, they are excellent workmen, and will make a pair of shoes for four-pence; but for a good pair, which will last two years, they demand eighteen-pence. In the upper parts of India they make several kinds of gilt and ornamented shoes, like those worn by the Grecian ladies, which sell in Bengal for from three to forty rupees. These merry sons of Crispin are likewise employed as musicians at weddings, feasts, and religious ceremonies; which,

tribes, which tenanted the north of Asia—were introduced into Europe armorial bearings, which were originally nothing more than hieroglyphical symbols, mostly of a religious allusion, that distinguished the banners of the potentates of Asia. The eagle belongs to the ensign of Vishna, the bull to that of Siva, and the falcon to that of Rama. The sun rising behind a recumbent lion blazed on the ancient ensign of the Tartar, and the eagle of the sun on that of the Persians. The Humza, a famous goose, one of the incarnations of Boodha, is yet the chief emblem of Burman banners. The Russians, no doubt, had their standard from the eastern nations; it is the type of Garuda. The Islamites took the crescent, a fit emblem either of a rising or declining empire, and of their primeval worship.

in the opinion of Ward, accounts in a great measure for the horrid din which on these occasions stuns the ear of an European.* The Hindoo *Druggists* are a respectable class of people. The *Brass-founders* are numerous and skilful.

Shell-ornament-makers abound in Calcutta, where the women sometimes wear six or eight rings of shells on each wrist. In some parts of the country all the lower part of the arm is covered with them. These trinkets, like the gold and silver ornaments possessed by the peasants of France, sometimes become a kind of heir-loom in the family, and descend from mother to daughter to the third or fourth generation.† In different parts of India gunpowder is manufactured—cannon (both brass and iron) cast, and various warlike weapons, as also coats of mail of exquisite workmanship prepared; paper, whether for writing, printing, or wrapping is made in large quantities, and the introduction of a steam paper mill at Serampore has introduced an improved material into the market; the indigo made by natives is equal to any of the European factories—and in delicateness and brilliancy of dyes they quite excel us; the Hindoo surgeons, although not equally daring as the Europeans in the large operations of amputations, &c. are quite as skilful in couching for the cataract, or cutting for the stone,—and whether handicraft requires patient endurance, firmness of touch, and keenness of sight, they are not behind their Western brethren. 'To say,' says Bishop Heber, 'that the Hindoos or Musulmans are deficient in any essential feature of a civilized people, is an assertion which I can scarcely suppose to be made by any who have lived with them. Their manners are at least as pleasing and courteous as those of the corresponding stations of life among ourselves; their houses are larger, and, according to their wants and climate, to the full as convenient as ours; their architecture is at least as elegant. *Nor is it true that in the mechanic arts they are inferior to the general run*

* See Mr. Knight's Account of the Hindoos, vol. i. p. 193.

† Ward, View, &c. vol. i. p. 98—142.

of European nations. Where they fall short of us (which is chiefly in agricultural implements and the mechanics of common life), they are not, so far as I have understood of Italy and the South of France, surpassed in any great degree by the people of those countries. Their goldsmiths and weavers produce as beautiful fabrics as our own, and it is so far from true that they are obstinately wedded to their own patterns, that they show an anxiety to imitate our models, and do imitate them very successfully. The ships built by native artists at Bombay are notoriously as good as any which sail from London or Liverpool. The carriages and gigs which they supply at Calcutta are as handsome, though not as durable, as those of Long Acre. In the little town of Monghir, 300 miles from Calcutta, I had pistols, double-barrelled guns, and different pieces of cabinet-work brought down to my boat for sale, which in outward form (for I know no further) nobody could detect to be of Hindoo origin.'

In closing this chapter, I trust sufficient facts have been adduced to prove the claims which our Hindoo fellow-subjects have on their brethren in England; I have quoted the testimony of others, in preference to recording my own observations, in order to avoid the recurrence of the charge that has been made of my being prejudiced in favour of the Hindoos, and of our colonists in general; I know of no individual who has ever resided long in India, or attentively examined the Hindoos, without speaking warmly in their favour,—I found them, whether Hindoos, Mussulmans, or Parsees, grateful for even slight attentions, courteous in their manners, hospitable without ostentation, punctual in their duties, and brave without boasting,—in charity abounding, strict in religious rites, and scrupulously exact in the performance of social obligations; of an intelligence quick and refined, docile under instruction, and expanding in comprehension. That England may treat them with justice, and no longer impoverish their beautiful and fertile land by a grasping, mercenary commercial system which beggars the Hindoo without enriching Britain, is my fervent and anxious wish.

BENGAL—*Weights.*—5 siccas—1 chittuck—16 = 1 seer—40 = 1 maund.

Two *maunds* in use; the factory maund, 74 lbs. 10 oz. 10.666 drs. avoirdupois; the bazar maund, 82 lbs. 2 oz. 2.133 drs.

Liquid Measure.—5 siccas—1 chittuck, 4 = 1 pouah or pice, 4 = 1 seer, 40 = 1 maund; or 5 seers = 1 pussaree or measure, 8 measures = 1 maund.

Grain Measure.—4 khaouks = 1 raik,* 4 = 1 paillie, 20 = 1 soallie, 16 = 1 kahoon.†

Long Measure.—3 jows‡ = 1 finger, 4 = 1 hand, 3 = 1 span, 2 = 1 cubit, 4 = 1 fathom, 1000 = 1 coss.‖

Square Measure.—5 cubits or hauts = 1 chittuck,§ 16 = 1 cottah, 20 = 1 biggah,¶ $3\frac{1}{2}$ = 1 English acre.

Gold and Silver.—4 punkhos = 1 dhan,** 4 = 1 *rutty*, $6\frac{1}{2}$ = 1 anna, 16 = 1 tolah, = 224.588 grs. troy; or 8 rutties = 1 massa, 13.28 = 1 mohur.

MADRAS—*Commercial.*—Candy = 20 maunds. The candy of Madras 500 lbs. avoirdupois. The maund divided into 8 vis, 320 pollams or 3200 pagodas, (the vis being divided into 5 seers,) each pagoda weighing 2 oz. 3 grs. The Commercial Dictionary, from which this statement is taken, observes: the garce = 20 baruays or candies—the baruay = 20 maunds—the maund = 8 visay or vis, 320 pollams or 3200 varahuns, the varahun weighing $52\frac{3}{4}$ English grains; therefore, the vis is 3 lbs. 3 oz.; the maund, 24 lbs. 2 oz.; the baruay, 482 lbs.; and the garce, 9645 lbs. avoirdupois, or nearly 4 tons, 6 cwt.

Measures of Capacity.—The garce corn measure contains—80 parahs = 400 marcals,—the marcal = 8 puddies = 64 ollucks. The marcal = 750 cubic inches = 27 lbs. 2 oz. 2 drs. avoir. of fresh spring water; hence 43 *marcals* = 15 Winchester bushels, and the *garce* nearly $17\frac{1}{2}$ English quarters. Grain, when sold by weight, $9256\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. = 1 garee = 18 candies = $12\frac{4}{5}$ maunds.

BOMBAY—*Commercial.*—1 tank = 2.488 drs., 72 = 1 seer, 40 = 1 maund = 28 lbs. avoirdupois.

Grain.—2 tipprees = 1 seer, 4 = 1 pailie, 7 = 1 parah, 8 = 1 candy = 156 lbs. 12 oz. 12 drs.

Salt.—$10\frac{1}{2}$ adowlies = 1 parah, 100 = 1 anna, 16 = 1 rash = 2,572,176 cubic inches.††

Pearl Weight.—1 tucka = 0.208 gr., $13\frac{5}{7}$ = 1 ruttee,—24 = 1 tank = 72 grains.

Gold and Silver—1 wall, 4.475 grs., 40 = 1 tolah = 179 grains.

Long Measure.—16 tussoos = 1 hath = 18 English inches; 24 tussoos = 1 guz = 27 English inches.

Liquor Measure.—The seer weighs 60 Bombay rupees = 1 lb. 8 oz. and $8\frac{1}{2}$ drs., and 50 seers = 1 maund.

* Or 9 lbs. avoirdupois. † 1 kahoon = 40 B. maunds.
‡ Or barley corns. ‖ 1 coss = 1 mile, 1 furlong, 3 poles and $3\frac{1}{2}$ yds.
§ 45 English square feet. ¶ 14,440 square feet. ** A grain.
†† 40 tons; the anna weighs $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons.

Civil and Military Administration and Charges of British India, exclusive of Home Establishments, or of Penang, Malacca, Singapore, &c.

Presidency.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Number of Persons Employed.								Charges exclusive of Debt.									
			Civil.					Military.			Civil.							Total Charges (at the old rate of Exchange.)	Total Revenue (at the new rate of Exchange, 2s. the Rupee.)	Interest on Debts of India, 30th April, 1832, Rupee at 2s.
			Governors & Members of Council.	Members of Boards of Revenue, &c.	Secretaries to Government.	Diplomatic Agents.	Total Europeans (Civil and Uncovenanted.)	European.	Native.	Marine.	Governors & Members of Council.	Members of Revenue Boards, &c.	Secretaryships.	Diplomatic Agencies.	Grand Total Civil Charges, enumerated and not enumerated.	Military.	Marine.			
											£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Bengal	217,112	60,000,000	6	4	7	29	579	16,068	96,654	136 E. 340 N.	62,315	101,453	87,785	170,593	4,844,559	4,432,792	128,448	9,445,799	11,844,999	1,782,568
Agra	88,900	20,000,000	1	..	..	..	..	..	..		12,000	..	..	..	12,000	..	..	..	..	..
Madras	141,923	15,000,000	4	2	4	4	261	12,832	57,531	20 E. 265 N.	40,725	30,079	39,462	30,853	2,051,710	3,179,924	22,441	5,254,075	4,762,827	201,552
Bombay	64,938	7,000,000	4	..	3	4	215	7,728	32,508	542 E. 618 N.	38,225	..	27,938	47,715	1,660,422	1,714,095	199,324	3,573,841	2,232,605	23,494
Total	512,873	102,000,000	15	6	14	37	1,055	36,628	186,693	1,921	153,265	131,532	155,185	249,161	8,567,691	9,326,811	350,213	18,273,715	18,839,422	2,007,614

N. B.—The changes occasioned by the new Charter, and the yet unascertained establishment of the new Presidency at Agra, leaves this Table incomplete. By the new Charter the salary of the Governor-General is Sicca Rupees 240,000, and that of *each* of the four Ordinary Members of Council, S. R. 96,000, that of the Governor of each Presidency, S. R. 120,000, and that of each Member of their Council, S. R. 60,000. The salary of the Bishop of Calcutta is S. R. 50,000, and of each Bishop of Madras and Bombay, S. R. 24,000.

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT (ENGLISH AND INDIAN) OF BENGAL, AGRA, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY; JUDICIAL, POLICE, MILITARY, MARINE, MEDICAL AND ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, PATRONAGE OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, &c.

THE Government of the British possessions on the continent of Asia, is vested at home in two powers with co-ordinate authority,—viz. the E. I. Company, and a Ministerial Board, termed His Majesty's Commissioners for the affairs of India, the latter being devised by Mr. Pitt as a check upon the political proceedings of the former. A few words will be requisite to explain this complex authority.

THE COURT OF DIRECTORS.—The more immediate governing power of British India, and consequently the patronage attached thereto, is vested in the Court of Directors, or executive body of the E. I. Company. The capital stock of this Company is 6,000,000*l.* sterling, which is divided, according to a recent calculation, among 3,579 proprietors, of whom 53 have four votes;* 54—three; 347—two; 1,454—one; and 221 hold only 500*l.* stock, and are not qualified to vote but merely to debate on any question; 396 proprietors hold stock under 500*l.* and are not qualified to vote or speak, and 220 have not held their stock a sufficient time to enable them to vote. The stock must be bonâ fide in the proprietor's possession for 12 months, to enable him or her to vote; a regulation adopted to prevent collusive transfers of stock for particular occasions. The total number of *voters* is estimated at 2,000, and of the *votes* about 1,500 are compromised within four miles of the General Post Office. Women as well as men; foreigners as well as Englishmen, if holding stock sufficient, are empowered

* A proprietor of not less than £1000 has one vote; of £3000 two; of £6000 three; and of £10,000 and upwards, no more than four votes.

to vote and debate. A late classification of the votes gave of gentry, bankers, merchants, traders, shipowners, shopkeepers, &c. 1,836; of women (married, widows, and spinsters), 43; of officers in the King's and E. I. Company's Army, 222; of the clergy, 86; of officers in the Royal Navy, 28; of medical men, 19; of the nobility, 20.* The proprietors meet as a Court *regularly* every quarter, and specially when convened to discuss particular business.† The powers vested in this Court are, the election of qualified proprietors as their delegates, or representatives, to form a Court of Directors; to frame bye-laws for the regulation of the Company—provided they do not interfere with Acts of Parliament; to controul salaries, or pensions, exceeding 200*l.* a year, or gratuities above 600*l.* It may confer pecuniary rewards on any eastern statesman, or warrior, above the latter named sum, subject, however, to the confirmation of the Board of Control; it can demand copies of public documents to be laid before it for discussion and consideration, but it is prevented interfering with any order of the Court of Directors, *after* the same shall have received the approval of the Board of Control. The Court of Proprietors did interfere, *and with effect,* in the case of the maritime compensations, on the ground that their concurrence had not been obtained previously to the application of the Board. The Chairman of the Court of Directors is *ex-officio* Chairman of the Court of Proprietors;—debates are regulated as in the House of Commons,—and all questions and elections are decided by the ballot.

The Court of Directors, or Representatives of the foregoing body of Proprietors, consist of 24 persons, qualified according to an Act of Parliament, which provides that each must be a natural born or naturalized subject of Great Bri-

* The following is said to be the state of the votes of the Court of Proprietors in 1832:—Peers, 20; Members of Parliament, 10; Directors, 50; Clergymen, 86; Medical men, 19; Military Officers, 222; Naval Ditto, 28; Minor, 1; other Gentlemen, 1775; male votes, 2211; female ditto, 372; total, 2583.

† The number of quarterly and special Courts held from 1814 to 1830-31, was 212.

tain: possessed of £2000 stock, (no matter for what previous period) he must not be a Director of the Bank of England, or the South Sea Company; and, by a Bye-law of the Company, he shall be liable to be removed if he should promote his own, or the election of any other Director, by promises of reward, collusive transfer of stock, or payment of travelling expenses, receive any pecuniary or other remuneration whatever, for any appointment in his gift or patronage as a Director. Six Directors retire annually by rotation, and are re-eligible after twelve months absence, the Proprietors have a review of every Director in the course of four years, and can of course remove if they think fit such as they may deem not fit for the duty which they ought to fulfil.* The Court of Directors elect from their own body a Chairman and Deputy Chairman annually, meet once a week, not less than thirteen form a Court, and all questions are decided by ballot. The Court in general consists of men of various habits, views, and interests; by a recent analysis there were ten retired civil and law officers of the company; four military ditto of ditto; four maritime ditto of ditto; three private Indian merchants; and nine London merchants and bankers; of these fifteen were under ten years standing from the first election; eleven from ten to twenty ditto; two from twenty to thirty, and two from thirty upwards. The Court of Directors enjoy full initiatory authority over all matters at home and abroad relating to the political, financial, judicial, and military affairs of the Company. But its proceedings are subject to certain Acts of Parliament; to the superintendence of the Board of Control, and in several matters to the approval of the Court of Proprietors.

For the despatch of business the Directors are divided into three Committees; Finance and Home, eight Directors; Political and Military, seven; Revenue, Judicial, and Legislative, seven; the duty of each is partly defined by the title, but there is a committee of secrecy, forming the cabinet council of the Company, and consisting of the Chairman, de-

* Nineteen contested elections for Directors took place from 1814 to 1831.

puty ditto, and senior Director; its functions are defined by Parliament. In reference to the business done by the Court of Directors as compared with the Board of Control, the Select Committee of the House of Commons thus reports in 1832:

As to the proportions of general administration resting on the Board of Control, and the East India Company, its Courts and its Officers respectively, it has been asserted, that, of all the reflections, suggestions and instructions bearing upon the policy of the Indian Governments, contained in the public despatches, nine-tenths, if not a larger proportion originate with the India House, though whatever regards the more important transactions with other States, and whatever is done in England, may be said to be mainly done by the Board of Commissioners. Considering the multifarious nature of the Company's relations and transactions, it is to be expected that the correspondence should be voluminous and complicated, comprehending, as it does, not only all that is originated in England, and transmitted to India, but the record of the proceedings and correspondence of all the Boards at the several Presidencies, with duplicates of the documents relating thereto in India, necessary to put the authorities at home in complete possession of all their acts. The correspondence comes home in despatches, and the explanatory matter in books or volumes. The total number of folio volumes received from 1793 to 1813, 21 years, was 9,094; and from 1814 to 1829, a period of 16 years, 12,414.

From the establishment of the Board in 1784 to 1814, the number of letters received from the Court by the Board of Commissioners was 1,791; the number sent from them to the Court was 1,195. From 1814 to 1831, 1,967 letters have been written to, and 2,642 received from, the board. The number of drafts sent up to the Board from 1793 to 1813, were 3,958; from 1814 to 1833, 7,962, making an increase 4,004; in addition, there have been references, connected with servants, civil and military, and others, in this country, amounting between the years 1814 and 1830, to 50,146. Reports made to the Court by its Committees, apart from details and researches made in framing such Reports, 32,902. From 1813 to the

present time, nearly 800 Parliamentary Orders have been served on the Court, requiring returns of vast extent.

By the new East India charter the Company have agreed to place their Commercial rights in abeyance while they hold the political government and patronage of India, which is extended by charter to the 30th April, 1854, and in consideration of assigning over all their commercial assets (upwards of 21,000,000. sterling) for the benefit of the Indian territory, the present dividend of ten and a half per cent. (630,000*l.*) on the Company's capital stock, is secured on the Indian revenue for forty years, at the expiration of which period the capital of 6,000,000*l.* will be paid off at the rate of 100*l.* for every 5*l.* 5*s.* of annuity. As a guarantee fund for the proprietors in case of the surplus Indian revenues being unable in any one year to pay the dividends, and in order to provide for the ultimate liquidation of the principal, the sum of 2,000,000*l.* is to be set apart out of the commercial assets, to be invested in the three and a half per cents, there to accumulate as a security fund until it reaches the sum of 12,000,000*l.*

The business relating to the India Government is transacted in England, between the Board of Control and the Court of Directors, as follows :—*

All communications, of whatever nature, and whether received from abroad or from parties in this country, come, in the first instance, to the Secretary's Office, at the East India House, and are laid by the Chairman before the first Court that meets after their receipt. Despatches of importance are generally read to the Court at length. The despatches, when read or laid before the Court, are considered under reference to the respective Committees, and the officers whose duty it is to prepare answers take the directions of the Chairs upon points connected with them; the draft is prepared upon an examination of all the documents to which the substance has reference, and submitted to the Chairs; it is then brought before the Committee, to whose province the subject more particularly relates, to be approved or altered by them,

* Evidence before Parliament in 1832.

and, on being passed, is laid before the Court of Directors. After it has passed the Court of Directors, the draft goes to the Board of Control, who are empowered to make any alterations, but required to return it within a limited time, and with reasons assigned for the alterations they have made. Previously, however, to the draft being laid before either Committee by the Chairs, experience has suggested the convenience of submitting it to the President of the Board, in the shape of what is called a previous communication. This is done in communication between the President and the Chairs, in which stage alterations, containing the original views of the President, are made. The draft being returned to the Chairman, is laid by him, either with or without the alterations, as he may see fit, before the Committee. The draft, when approved of by the Committee, is submitted to the Court, and there altered or approved, as the Court may see fit. It is then officially sent to the Board, who make such alterations as they judge expedient, and return it to the Court, with their reasons at large for the same. Against these alterations the Court may make a representation to the Board, who have not unfrequently modified the alterations on such representation; but if the Board decline to do so, they state the same to the Court, and desire the draft may be framed into a despatch, and sent out to India, agreeably to the terms of the Act of Parliament. In the event of a refusal, three Judges of the Court of King's Bench finally decide as to the legality of the Board's order.

By the Act of 1784 and of 1833, the Directors are charged with appointing a Secret Committee, whose province is to forward to India all despatches which, in the opinion of the Board of Control, should be secret, and the subject-matter of which can only be divulged by permission of the Board. The Committee consists of three Members of the Court of Directors, chosen by the Court generally, viz. the Chairman, Deputy Chair, and most frequently Senior Member, who take the oath of secresy, as prescribed by the Act. Their officers are also sworn to secresy; and no one is employed in

transcribing secret despatches without the permission of the Board. The Board are empowered by law to issue, through the Secret Committee, orders and instructions on all matters relating to war, peace, or negociations of treaties with the States of India, and the Secret Committee are bound to transmit such order to India without delay. The Secret Committee have no legal power to remonstrate against such orders, provided they have relation to the subjects above stated. The Committee have had communication, upon matters stated in secret despatches, with the Board, and at their suggestions alterations have been made; but they have not the same power with regard to despatches sent down in the Secret Department that they have with regard to other despatches; they are not empowered to make representations thereon to the Board, whose orders are in fact conclusive on the Committee. The signatures of the Committee are necessary to ensure obedience to the orders conveyed by them to the Company's servants, with whom the Board of Commissioners have no direct correspondence.

It has been stated that there is another class of subjects not provided for in the Act which establishes the Secret Committee, but which have been necessarily treated through the Committee, and upon which its orders have been more punctually obeyed than in other cases, namely, negociations with European States having settlements in India, and generally all matters connected with war in Europe, which can in any way affect our Indian interests. (Provided for by the Act of 1833, section xxxvi.)

When either war against a Native State, or the carrying forward an expedition against any of the Eastern Islands, has been in contemplation, and the finances of India at these periods exceedingly pressed, or requiring aid from this country, the Secret Committee, in communication with the Board of Commissioners, have taken upon themselves to provide the requisite funds, without intimating the same to the Court at the time. Thus despatches relating to subjects purely financial and commercial, such as the transmission of

bullion, and the nature and amount of the Company's investments, have gone through the Secret Committee.

THE BOARD OF CONTROL.

The E. I. Company's Home Government, thus briefly described, has been controlled by a ministerial authority since 1784, which is termed the 'Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India,' or more generally the *Board of Control;* it consists of such members of the Privy Council as his Majesty may be pleased to appoint, of whom the two principal Secretaries of State and the Chancellor of the Exchequer shall always *ex officio* form three. The President is also nominated by the Crown, is usually a cabinet minister, and in all changes of Administration retires from office together with the salaried Commissioners and Secretary. The oath which the Commissioners take imposes on them the responsible duty of governing India to the best of their ability and judgment, as much and as completely as if there were no Executive Court or Administrative power. The *controlling* functions of the Board are exercised in revising *all* despatches prepared by the Court of Directors, and addressed to the Governments in India; the *originating*, in requiring the Court to prepare despatches on any named subject, and in altering or revising such despatch as it may deem fit. The Board is divided into six departments, viz. Accounts, Revenue, Judicial, Military, Secret and Political, and Foreign and Public; the duties of which are thus defined.*

1. *The Accountant's Department.*—To examine the accounts of the finances at home and abroad: controul the correspondence between the Court of Directors and the Indian Governments, in the departments of Finance, and Mints, and Coinage: also, occasional correspondence in most of the other departments of the Company's affairs requiring calculation, or bearing a financial character.

2. *The Revenue Department.*—Principally revision of despatches proposed to be sent to the several Governments of

* Evidence before Parliament in 1832.

India, reviewing the detailed proceedings of those Governments, and of all the subordinate revenue authorities, in connexion with the adjustment of the land assessments, the realization of the revenue so assessed, and the general operation of the revenue regulations on the condition of the people, and the improvement of the country. Besides the land revenue, the detailed proceedings of the local authorities in the salt, opium, and custom departments, come under periodical revision.

3. *The Judicial Department.*—Examination of all correspondence between the Court of Directors and the local Governments, on subjects connected with the administration of civil and criminal justice and police in the interior of India, such as, the constitution of the various courts, the state of business in them, the conduct and proceedings of the judges, and all proposals and suggestions which from time to time come under discussion, with the view of applying remedies to acknowledged defects.

The King's Courts at the three Presidencies, are not subject to the authority of the Court of Directors, or of the Board of Control; but, any correspondence which takes place in relation to the appointment or retirement of the judges of those courts, or to their proceedings (including papers sent home for submission to the King in Council, recommendations of pardon, &c.), passes through this department.

4. *The Military Department.*—Attention to any alterations which may be made in the allowances, organization, or numbers of the Indian army at the three Presidencies; to the rules and regulations affecting the different branches of the service; to the general staff, comprehending the adjutant and quarter-master general's department; the commissariat (both army and ordnance); the pay, building, surveying, and clothing departments; and, in fact, to every branch of Indian administration connected with the Company's army. It also embraces so much of the proceedings, with respect to the King's troops, as relate to the charge of their maintenance in India,

recruiting them from this country, and the periodical reliefs of regiments.

5. *The Secret, Political, and Foreign Department.*—Examines all communications from or to the local Governments, respecting their relations with the native chiefs or States of India, or with foreign Europeans, or Americans. It is divided into the following branches:—

i. The *Secret* department containing the correspondence between the Indian Governments and the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors. Under the provisions of the Act of Parliament, such confidential communications as, in the opinion of the local Governments, require secresy, are addressed by them to the Secret Committee. Any directions, also, to the local Governments, relating to war or negotiation, which, in the judgment of the Board of Control, require secresy, are signed by the Secret Committee; and the local Governments are bound to obey those directions in the same manner as if they were signed by the whole body of Directors.

ii. The *Political* department, comprising all correspondence not addressed to the Secret Committee, or sent through that Committee to the local Governments, respecting the native chiefs, or States, with whom those Governments are in alliance or communication, or whose affairs are under their political superintendence, or who are in the receipt of pecuniary stipends in lieu of territory.

iii. The *Foreign* department, including all correspondence relating to communications between the local Governments and the several foreign Europeans who have settlements in India or the Eastern Islands; and embracing, in fact, all the proceedings of the local Governments in relation to foreign Europeans or Americans, resorting to India.

The proceeding of the local Governments, with respect to their residents and political agents, and to any other officers and their respective establishments, through whom communications with native states and chiefs, or with foreigners, may be maintained, are also reported in the several departments in which those officers are respectively employed.

6. *The Public Department.*—The business of this department comprises the examination of all despatches to and from India upon *Commercial* or *Ecclesiastical* subjects, and of those which, being of a miscellaneous character, are distinguished by the general appellation of "Public." The commercial and ecclesiastical despatches, which are considered as forming two branches of correspondence distinct from the "Public," are united with the latter in the same department, only on account of the convenience of that arrangement, with reference to the distribution of business in the establishment of the Board of Control.

The *Public* correspondence comprises all those despatches which do not belong specifically to any of the branches of correspondence hitherto enumerated. They relate to the education of the natives and of the civil servants; to the appointment of writers and of the civil service generally, and to their allowances; to the several compassionate funds; to the grant of licenses to reside in India; to the press; to public buildings; to the Indian navy and the marine department; to the affairs of Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore, Malacca, and St. Helena; and to various miscellaneous subjects. Some of these being closely connected with the business of other departments, are reported upon in them, although the whole pass through, and are recorded in the public department.

The *Ecclesiastical* despatches contain every thing relating to the appointment of chaplains, archdeacons, and bishops; to their allowances; to their conduct; to the building and repair of churches, or other places used for public worship; and to all questions respecting the affairs of the churches of England and Scotland in India, or that of Rome, so far as public provision is made for its maintenance.

Any papers treating of ecclesiastical or miscellaneous topics, though they are not despatches to or from India, are likewise recorded and reported upon in this department.

The cost of the Board of Control is about 30,000*l.* a year. The salary of the President of the Board is 3,500*l.* per an-

num; of each of the paid Commissioners, 1,200*l.*; and of the Secretary 1,500*l.* to be raised to 1,800*l.* after three years' service. The Charter of 1833 authorizes two Secretaries for the Board.

THE FOREIGN GOVERNMENT OF INDIA—

is divided into three Presidencies, viz. Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and a Lieutenancy at Agra, or rather at Allahabad; the Chief at each Presidency is assisted and partly controlled by a Council* of two of the Company's senior civil servants, and the Commander-in-Chief of the army. The government of Bengal is termed the Supreme Government, and the head thereof is styled the Governor General of India; he is necessarily possessed of much local independence, exercising some of the most important rights of sovereignty, such as declaring war, making peace, framing treaties, to a certain extent forgiving criminals and enacting laws.

On all questions of State policy, excepting in a judicial capacity, the Governor General is independent of his Council; if the Council are dissentient, the Members record in their minutes the cause, which being submitted to the Governor General and he still remaining of his original opinion, the discussion is adjourned for 48 hours, when the Governor General may proceed to execution, first assigning his reasons for dissenting from the Council. The whole of the documents relative to the difference are then instantly transmitted to the Court of Directors and Board of Control; and the Court have the power, should they deem fit, of appointing new Members of Council to succeed the dissentient ones, or of recalling the Governor General.

* The Governor-General's Council consists of five Councillors—three to be servants of the Company of ten years standing, and to be appointed by the Directors; the fourth to be appointed by the Directors also, subject to the approbation of the King, but not from among the E. I. Company's servants, and with power to sit and vote in Council only at meetings for making laws and regulations. The Commander-in-Chief forms the fifth member, with precedence after the Governor General.

The Governor General, in virtue of his commission as Captain General, may head the military operations in any part of India. He has also the power of suspending the Governors of the other Presidencies, or of proceeding thither and taking the supreme authority in their Councils, in the execution of any of which acts he is subject to the vigilant supervision of the home authorities. The Governors of Madras and Bombay are in a similar manner independent of local control, but for the sake of obtaining unity in foreign transactions, on matters of general and internal policy, or in expending money they are subject to the authority of the Governor General, who, on proceeding to either of the Presidencies, may assemble his Council there and sit as President.

Regulations for the good government of the British possessions in India are passed by the Governor General in Council; they immediately become effective, but are transmitted nome and subject to the revision of the Court of Directors and Board of Control; heretofore ordinances for the good government of the Presidency capitals were not valid until publicly exposed for 14 days, then registered by the Supreme (King's) Court; put in force, but subject to a further ordeal at home: by the new Charter these checks on the Governor General are removed, and that authority in council can now make laws for the regulation of even his Majesty's supreme courts. Such is the legislative department of the Government, the executive is generally exercised by means of Boards, of which in Bengal there are five,* at Madras three,† and at Bombay one. Any of these Boards make suggestions or present drafts of regulations in their respective departments to Government; the Boards also receive from their subordinates suggestions, either for their own information or for transmission to the Governor General in Council; by this means the local knowledge of the inferior officers is brought under the knowledge of the chief executive, and their talents and in-

* 1, Revenue; 2, Customs, salt and opium; 3, Trade; 4, Military; 5, Medical.

† 1, Revenue; 2, Military; 3, Medical.

dustry appreciated: indeed, a leading feature in the duties of the Indian Governments is that of noting down every transaction, whether as individual chiefs of departments or as Boards: thus habits of business are generated, combined with a moral check of supervision, no matter what distance a servant may be from the Presidency, or what period of time may elapse, should an enquiry be necessary. All minutes of the Boards' proceedings are laid before the Government monthly, and then transmitted home. The objection alleged to this is that it creates delay; but as correctly observed by the Court of Directors in their Letter to the Board of Control, 27th August, 1829, the Government of India may in one word be described as a *Government of Checks*. The Court thus judiciously remark—'Now whatever may be the advantage of checks, it must always be purchased at the expense of delay, and the amount of delay will generally be in proportion to the number and efficiency of checks.' The correspondence between the Court of Directors and the governments of India is conducted with a comprehensiveness and in a detail quite unexampled; every, the minutest proceedings of the local governments including the whole correspondence respecting it which passes between them and their subordinate functionaries, is placed on record, and complete copies of the Indian records are sent annually to England for the use of the home authorities. The despatches from India are indexes to those records, or what a table of contents is to a book, not merely communicating on matters of high interest, or soliciting instructions on important measures in contemplation, but containing summary narratives of all the proceedings of the respective governments, with particular references to the correspondence and consultations thereon, whether in the political, revenue, judicial, military, financial, ecclesiastical or miscellaneous departments. In the ordinary course of Indian administration much must always be left to the discretion of local governments; and unless upon questions of general policy and personal cases, it rarely occurs that instructions from hence can reach India before the time for acting upon them

is gone by. This is a necessary consequence of the great distance between the two countries, the rapid succession of events in India, which are seldom long foreseen, even by those who are on the spot, and the importance of the ruling authorities there, acting with promptitude and decision, and adopting their measures, on their own responsibility, to the varying exigencies of the hour. These circumstances unavoidably regulate, but do not exclude the controlling authority of the Court of Directors. Without defeating the intentions of Parliament, they point out the best and indeed the only mode in which these intentions can be practically fulfilled. Although, with the exceptions above adverted to, a specific line of conduct cannot often be prescribed to the Indian governments, yet it seems to indicate any other rather than a state of irresponsibility, that the proceedings of those governments are reported with fidelity, examined with care, and commented upon with freedom by the home authorities; nor can the judgments passed by the Court be deemed useless whilst, though they have immediate reference to past transactions, they serve ultimately as rules for the future guidance of their servants abroad. The knowledge, on the part of the local governments, that their proceedings will always undergo this revision, operates as a salutary check upon its conduct in India, and the practice of replying to letters from thence, paragraph by paragraph, is a security against habitual remissness or accidental oversight on the part of the Court, or their servants at home. From a perusal of the Indian records, the Court also obtain an insight into the conduct and qualifications of their servants, which enables them to judge of their respective merits, and to make a proper selection of members of Council.'

The DUTIES OF THE BRITISH FUNCTIONARIES IN INDIA may be gathered from the following detail of the chief stations and offices of the civil servants in Bengal.*—'The duties of Territorial Secretary, in one branch, correspond in a great measure with those of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in this country; he manages the whole financial business of the

* Evidence before Parliament in 1832.

Government, in concert with the Accountant-general; but the Secretary is the chief officer of the Government in that department; moreover, he has the management of the territorial revenue, and the revenue derived from salt and opium, and he conducts the correspondence of government with the three Boards of Revenue in the upper, lower, and central provinces respectively.

'In relation to the Board of Revenue, he is merely the ministerial officer of the Government; he is not a responsible officer, and has no direct power over the Board of Revenue.

'If any increase of charge were proposed by any of the Boards of Revenue, or by any person acting under them, that proposal for increase is submitted to the Territorial Secretary before it is acquiesced in and sanctioned by Government—he is the person always addressed. The Boards of Revenue have the power of writing directly to the Governor-General in Council; but that is a mere matter of form, for such letter goes equally through the office of the Territorial Secretary, and is submitted by him to the Governor-General in Council.

'The Territorial Secretary offers his opinion upon the admissibility of any new charge proposed. He has no right or power to do so, but he is generally called upon to do so. The Secretaries are in the habit of giving in papers called memoranda. As the Governor-General or Members of Council lay minutes before the Council Board, so the Secretaries, whenever they have any suggestion to make, submit what are called memoranda.

'One of the Members of the Council is nominally President of the Board of Revenue, he performs no duties.

'The duties of the territorial and judicial departments as regard the judicial department are quite distinct departments. There are two Secretaries; the Judicial Secretary is quite independent of the Territorial; he conducts the correspondence of the Government with the Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut; they are the chief criminal and civil courts.

'The police is under his direction, at least all the correspondence of Government on the subject of the police is con-

ducted by him. Like the Territorial Secretary, he is not a substantive officer, only a ministerial functionary of the government. He writes always in the name of the government; his letters always begin with words to this effect, 'I am directed by the Governor-General in Council to inform you:' and this holds good with regard to all other Secretaries.

'The business of a Collector in the lower provinces is the receipt of revenue; the conduct of public sales, in the event of any defalcation on the part of any landed proprietor who is responsible for any portion of the revenue.

'There being a permanent settlement of the land revenue in those provinces, he has not much to do directly with the collection of the revenue; but he has a great number of other duties, as the management of wards' estates (minors' estates); for the Board of Revenue is also a Court of Wards.

'He exercises judicial functions in what are called summary suits, arising from disputes between landlord and tenant, between zemindar and ryot. That is, in disputes connected with the administration of the revenue.

'With reference to the extent in which he decides suits. The suits are summary suits; they are not conducted with the formality of regular suits; they are instituted originally in the courts of law, and are referred by the Judge to the Collector for decision; they are of a particular description; they are not conducted with the formality of regular law-suits; there is a particular process laid down by the Regulations for them.

'It is indirectly in the nature of a reference; it is a claim of the zemindar on the ryot for rent which the ryot disputes or denies; and it is referred to the Collector, as a summary suit, under particular Regulations.

All the instances in which he exercises judicial power are referred to him by the court, as far as regards the summary suits referred to: but there are also investigations which partake largely of judicial inquiries, which he conducts independently of the courts, as, for instance, where landholders in coparceny have petitioned to have their estates

divided, and to become separately responsible to Government. Such divisions are called Butwarahs.

'The revenue collected remains in the custody of a native Treasurer, who gives heavy security, and who is to a great degree independent of the Collector. Security is given to the Government through the Collector; but the Board of Revenue see that it is sufficient, and the Collector is also responsible.'

JUDICIAL.

We may now proceed to examine briefly the mode in which the administration of justice is carried on; in the Bengal Presidency, for instance, there is first a high court of Appeal, termed the 'Sudder Dewany and Nizamut Adawlut,' or chief Civil* and Criminal Court.† The functions of this Court‡ are cognizance of civil, criminal, and police matters; the remission or mitigation of punishment when the sentence of the law officers is unduly severe, co-revision previous to the execution of any sentence of death, transportation, or perpetual imprisonment, arbitration where the provincial judges differ from their law officers; revisions of the proceedings of any of the Courts, with power to suspend provincial judges; it may direct suits for property exceeding 5,000*l.* in value, to be originally tried before it; it may admit second or special appeals from the inferior Courts, and its construction of the Government regulations is final. The Chief Judge has 6,000*l.* a year, and the three Puisne Judges 5,000*l.* each.§

* The civil law is administered according to the religious code of the party, whether Hindoo or Mahomedan. A commission is now being issued to examine into the variety of the civil laws existing in the various provinces, and to endeavour to codify them into a general system.

† The criminal law in India is the Mahomedan code, in which mutilations of the limbs and flagellations to death are not unfrequently ordained; these are commuted by us for imprisonment, &c., and it will be seen in the chapter on education how crime has been diminished in India.

‡ A Court of a similar nature has been established for the Western Provinces, under Lord William Bentinck's enlightened government.

§ There are in the Company's Courts three grades of *European* Judges, the District, the Provincial, and the Judges of the Sudder Court (there

The second degree of Courts are the Provincial Courts of Appeal (of which there are six for Bengal) with a Chief and Puisne Judge to each. They have no criminal jurisdiction; try suits exceeding 5,000 rupees in value, if the plaintiff desire their decision, (he may prefer it before the Zillah Judge, if the value do not exceed 10,000 rupees,) appeals lie from the Zillah Courts, and are final unless in cases of special appeal.

For the Bengal Presidency there are 20 Commissioners of Circuit who combine revenue with judicial functions. They hold sessions of goal delivery at least twice in each year at the different Zillah and City stations. The direction and controul of the Magistrates, Revenue Officers and Police are vested in them. The salary of each Commissioner is 4,000*l.* a year.

The City of Zillah* Courts of Bengal amount to 49; some have a judge, magistrate, and registrar; in others less extensive, the duties of judge and magistrate are conjoined, or the duties of magistrate and registrar.†

These Courts have cognizance of affrays, thefts, burglaries, &c., when not of an aggravated character, and power to the extent of two years' imprisonment; commit persons charged

are also Magistrates, who exercise civil jurisdiction under special appointments, and the Registrars try and decide causes referred to them by the Judge of the district.) The native Judges are divided into two classes. 1st, *Moonsiffs*, of whom there are several stationed in the interior of every district; and, 2ndly, *Sudder Aumeems*, established at the same station with the European Judge. Native Judges of any sect can try causes as far as 1,000 rupees, and the amount may be increased at the recommendation of the European Judge to 5,000 rupees; this permission has been granted in very many cases, and the decisions have been extremely satisfactory. An Appeal lies from the District Native Judges to the District European Judge, from the latter to the High Court of Sudder Adawlut at Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, and from thence to the King in Council in England.

* The population and extent of a Zillah is various; in Bengal the average population is about 2,000,000.

† The total salaries of the European covenanted servants of a Zillah Court range from 30,000 to 44,000 S. R. a year

with heinous offences for trial before the Commissioners of Circuit; try original suits to the value of 20,000 rupees; decide appeals from registrars, (*i. e.* causes not exceeding 500 rupees in value) Sudder Aumeems (native judges) and Moonsiffs; and by a regulation of 1832 (for the expedition of criminal justice,) three Zillah judges may be invested with power by the Governor-General to hold sessions and goal delivery.

These Courts have authority over the Police, and the judges are enjoined to visit the goals at least once a week.

Another and extensive set of Zillah and City Courts have been established last year with native judges of every class, caste, or persuasion, found qualified for the duties enjoined them, to whom liberal salaries have been granted; and by a more recent regulation, native assessors sit on the bench with the European judges.

A plan of judicature, similar to the foregoing, is in force at Madras and Bombay, modified by local usages; in some parts there are Punchayets (native juries) of arbitration and of civil and criminal procedure; in others, native assessors in civil and criminal matters.

In the administration of civil justice the objects of the Company's Government have been to render it pure in source, speedy in execution, and cheap in practice; in the administration of criminal justice the aim has been first to prevent crime, and secondly to promote the reformation of the offender. The judges are well paid, in order to secure the purity of justice; the Courts are numerous, in order that it may be speedily rendered, and the authorized fees are light (particularly in trifling cases) for the cheap attainment of right. In criminal matters, offences are quickly punished,—the death sentences (which are inflicted but for very few crimes) are almost sure to be carried into effect, and it is in evidence before Parliament (in 1832) that prisoners are brought to trial without delay, that the punishments awarded are mild and well proportioned to the offence; that abundant care is taken against unjust convictions, and that extraordinary care is paid

to the health and comfort of the prisoners in the goals; the effect of the system is the extraordinary diminution of crime as will be seen in the Education Chapter. Measures have been taken for the promulgation of a knowledge of the old as well as new laws.

Laws and Regulations.—In pursuance of the direction, and by virtue of the powers given by the 47th section of the Act of the 3d and 4th William IV. chap. 85, the Court of Directors of the East India Company, with the approbation of the Commissioners for the Affairs of India, ordain as follow:—

1. Copies of all laws and regulations shall be communicated to the several Functionaries appointed to carry them into effect, and shall be preserved in all Courts of Justice, and there be open to the inspection of all persons.

2. All laws and regulations shall be translated into the several native languages most commonly spoken, and printed and sold at a low price.

3. The Governments of the several Presidencies will make such a distribution of copies of the laws and regulations so to be sold as may bring them most conveniently within the reach of all persons, and will notify in a public manner where such copies may be procured.

4. The Governments will likewise, on the passing of any law and regulation, publish the title of it, and an abstract of its contents in the Gazettes and such other newspapers as are most generally circulated.

Authentification of Laws and Regulations.—1. The original copy of all laws and regulations shall be signed by the Members of the Legislative Council by whom they shall be passed, and such copy shall be preserved in the archives of the Government of India.

2. Such copies only of the several laws and regulations hereafter passed as shall be printed at the Government Press shall be admitted as evidence in Courts of Justice.

Such copies so printed shall bear in the title page facsimiles of the signatures of the Members of Council by whom

the several laws and regulations may have been respectively passed."

There is a Supreme, or King's Court at each Presidency, with a Chief and two Puisne Judges; a Master in Equity, Registrar, an established number of Attorneys and Barristers, at the discretion of the Judges, and at Calcutta there is a Hindoo and a Mahomedan law officer attached to the Court. The jurisdiction of this Court extends over the local boundaries of the Presidency, with certain exceptions not well defined, and the Courts claim jurisdiction in certain cases beyond the Presidency; such claims have, however, been viewed with alarm, and the extension of the jurisdiction of the King's Court at the present period deprecated. The salaries and contingent expenses of the Supreme Court* at Calcutta annually, are 879,000 rupees, and the emoluments of Barristers and Attorneys about 771,000 rupees. The same items at Madras and Bombay are for the first, 650,000 rupees, and for the second, 950,000 rupees: total of Supreme Courts, 3,250,000 rupees. Trial by jury in criminal matters, not in civil; natives are eligible as petty and grand jurors; proceedings are in English, with the aid of interpreters, and in general the civil laws of England are applied. There are at Calcutta and Bombay Courts of Requests, for the recovery of small debts, the Recorders of which are Europeans.

THE POLICE

in Bengal, for instance, are divided into stations with a native officer, native registrar, petty officer, and from 20 to 30 po-

* The salaries of the Supreme Court Judges at the three Presidencies are, *Bengal*, Chief, £8,000; Puisne, £6,000. *Madras*, Chief, 60,000 rupees; Puisne, 50,000 rupees. *Bombay*, ditto, ditto. Since 1807, there have been six Chief Justices at Bengal, and since 1805 seven Puisne. At Madras since 1815, four Chief, and since 1809, ten Puisne; at Bombay since 1823, three Chief and five Puisne Judges. The *fixed* charges were, in 1829, as follow: Bengal, S. R. 383,120; Madras, 378,056; Bombay, 293,874, total, S. R. 955,050, being an excess over 1823 of S. R. 205,826.

licemen well armed. In each district there are from 15 to 20 stations, making altogether in lower Bengal about 500, and in the upper or western Provinces 400. Every village has also its own watchman, armed and paid by the village, and as there are 163,673 villages in lower Bengal, there is a further force of 160,000 men added to the Government establishment. In some Provinces of central India, each village has also a petty officer, whose duty it is to track thieves, and when he traces them to a village, to hand over the search to the trackers of that village.

The head officer at each station receives criminal charges, holds inquests, forwards accused persons with their prosecutors and witnesses to the Zillah Magistrate, uses every exertion for the apprehension of criminals and the preservation of the peace in his district, and regularly reports all proceedings to the European Magistrate from whom he receives orders. The village police, together with the village corporation officers (such as the barber, schoolmaster, accountant, waterman, measurer, &c.), land agents, Zemindars, &c. are all required to give immediate information of crime committed within their limits and to aid in the apprehension of offenders. There is a mounted police officered by natives, and a river police conducted also by natives.

The police officers are furnished with precise and brief manuals of instructions, and the abuses which prevailed are being rapidly removed; what was good in the native laws has been retained, and what was evil obliterated, and an excellent system still open to improvement has been the result. The general system of police in India, and its gradations of ranks is thus detailed in the recent evidence before Parliament. 'The lowest police officer is the village watcher. There are several in a village who perform the lower offices. They are under the control of the head of the village; the head of the village is under the control of the Tehsildar, who is a native collector of revenue; the Tehsildar is under the Magistrate, who is the collector. The village watchers are remunerated by a small quantity of grain from the produce

of the village, and from certain fees from the inhabitants; and the head of the village has also similar allowances, to a greater extent. The Tehsildar is a stipendiary officer of the government, employed in the collection of the revenue. There are police officers appointed to towns, called Aumeems of police, who have a jurisdiction also beyond those towns; and there are officers called Cutwals, a kind of high constables, resident chiefly in market towns. There are, in some districts, paid police; and there were formerly various classes of native peons, under different denominations, many of whom have of late years been dismissed as unnecessary.'

The strength of the civil service at each Presidency, according to the Bengal Finance Committee, is as follows:—

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Senior Merchants*	272	133	56	461
Junior, ditto	25	11	26	62
Factors	41	16	30	87
Writers	177	34	36	247
Total	515	194	148	857
Number of Annuitants retiring Annually	9	4	3	16
Casualties at Two and a half per Cent.	10	4	2	16
Annually Required	19	8	5	32

The following detail shews the recent revision of allowances for the civil functionaries of Bengal, the *proposed* salaries not affecting present incumbents:—

JUDICIAL AND JUDICIAL FISCAL.

Sudder Dewanny Adawlut; 5 Judges, at 52,200 each, 2,61,000 St. Rs. Judges of Provincial Courts: 14 Judges, at 36,000; 5,04,000. Registrar of Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, 37,200. Deputy ditto, 14,400. 21 Commissioners of Revenue and Circuit, at 42,000; 8,82,000. 10 Judges, at 30,000; 3,00,000. 36 Judges and Magistrates, at 30,000 10,80,000. 7 Magistrates, 1,34,400. Registrars, including vacancies, at 8,400 and 6,000; 3,94,800. 10 Joint Magistrates, also Registrars, as now,

* The terms here given have been continued ever since the E. I. Company were a mere trading company, new designations are necessary.

subject to revision, 1,27,200. 8 Principal Asssistants, including 2 vacancies, at 30,000; 2,40,000. Commissioner in Kumaon, 30,000. Assistant ditto, 8,400. Ramghur Judge, Magistrate, and Collector, 36,000. 1 Registrar and Assistant, 12,000. 1 Collector and Magistrate of Calcutta, 36,000. 3 Collectors and Magistrates, 90,000. 4 Sub-Collectors and Joint Magistrates, as now, subject to revision, 77,307. 1 Superintendent and Remembrancer of Law suits, 24,000. 1 Head Assistant Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, 8,400. 1 Second ditto, 7,200. 1 Third ditto, 6,000. 24 Assistants, at 4,800; 1,15,200. Total St. Rs. 44,25,507.

Fiscal.—3 Members Board of Revenue, at 52,200; 1,56,600. Senior Secretary, 37,200. Junior ditto, 31,200. Sub ditto, 14,400. Head Assistant ditto, 8,400. 3 Commissioners under Regulation III. of 1828,* at 45,000; 1,35,000. 2 Members Board of Customs, at 52,000; 1,04,4000. 1 Secretary, 31,200. Head Assistant in charge of salt chokees, 14,400. Second Assistant ditto, with chokees and stamps, 8,400. Opium Agent at Bahar, 42,000. Ditto at Benares; an equal sum to be drawn as Commercial Resident, 24,000. 2 Salt Agents, Tumlook and Hidgelee, at 50,000; 1,00,000. Ditto at Jessore, 30,000. 6 Salt Agents and Collectors, at 36,000; 2,16,000. 48 Collectors, including those in charge of customs, salt chokees, and Opium Agents, and also Collectors of Customs, at 30,000; 14,40,000. 7 Deputy and Sub-Collectors, including Customs, at 12,000; 84,000. Superintendent of Sulkea Golahs, 30,000. 1 ditto Eastern Salt Chokees, 19,200. Collector of Calcutta Sea Customs, 42,000. 1 Deputy ditto, 20,400. 1 Head Assistant to ditto, 12,000. Collector of Inland Customs, 31,200. 1 Deputy Collector Inland Customs, 16,800. 1 Collector of Customs at Moorshedabad, 30,000. 1 Commissioner Sunderbunds, 30,000. 13 Assistants in Revenue and Salt Departments, at 4,800; 62,400. Total St. Rs. 27,71,200.

Political.—4 Residents at Foreign Courts, Delhi, Hydrabad, Lucknow, and Nagpore, at 66,000; 2,64,000. 2 ditto, Indore and Gwalior, at 60,000; 1,20,000. 1 ditto, Katmoondoo, at 42,000; 42,000; Governor-General's Agent, Moorshedabad, 42,000. 1 Commissioner, Nerbuddah, 50,000. 1 Superintendent, Ajmere, 36,000. Secretary to Commissioner at Delhi, ... 13 Political Agents including Military, as now, 2,59,680. Head Assistant and Deputy Agent, Indore, 20,400. 3 Head Assistants to Residents at Delhi, Hydrabad, and Nepaul, 27,000. 1 ditto, Ajmere, 8,400. 2 Second Assistants to Residents at Delhi, Hydrabad, at 7,200; 14,400. 3 Assistants to Commissioner at Delhi, at 4,800; 14,400. 19 Military Assistants, as now, 1,40,400. Total St. Rs. 10,38,680.

Miscellaneous.—4 Secretaries to Government, at 52,200; 2,08,800.

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* Second Assistant to Sudder Board not included, St. Rs. 6,000.

1 Persian Secretary and Deputy ditto, Political Department, 48,000. 3 Deputies, 36,000. 2 Assistant Secretaries to Government, at 8,400; 16,800. Accountant General, 52,200. Deputy ditto, and the Military Accountant, 37,200. Sub ditto Accountant, Revenue and Judicial Departments, and Civil Auditor, 31,200. Commercial Accountant also in salt and opium, &c. with the Bank, 25,200. Deputy Accountant, and Deputy Civil Auditor, with office of Secretary to Annuity Fund, 19,200. Head Assistant to Accountant General, 12,000. Sub-Treasurer,* 43,200. Head Assistant to ditto, 8,400. Postmaster-general, 37,200. Mint-master, 37,200. Superintendent of Stamps, ... 63 Writers attached to the College on 1st February, 2,26,800. Total St. Rs. 8,39,400.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.

The Anglo-Indian army, amounting to nearly 200,000 men, well deserves examination, whether in reference to numbers, discipline, gallantry in the field, or fidelity to its government:—

RISE, PROGRESS, AND CHARACTER OF THE NATIVE ARMY OF INDIA.†

THOUGH Bombay was the first possession which the English obtained in the East, the establishment on that island was, for a very long period, on too limited a scale to obtain more than its European garrison, and a few companies of disciplined sepoys. On the coast of Coromandel, which became towards the middle of the last century a scene of warfare between the English and French, who mutually aided and received support from the princes of that quarter, the natives of India were instructed in European discipline. During the siege of Madras, which took place in A.D. 1746, a number of peons, a species of irregular infantry, armed with swords and spears, or matchlocks, were enlisted for the occasion; to those some English officers were attached, among whom a young gentleman of the civil service, of the name of Haliburton, was the most distinguished. This gentleman, who had been rewarded with the commission of a lieutenant, was employed in the ensuing year in training a small corps of natives in the European manner; he did not, however, live to perfect that system, which he appears to have introduced into the Madras service.‡

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* Junior Assistant Accountant-General's department not included, St. R. 6,000.

† This brief account was written by the late gallant and patriotic Sir John Malcolm, who had the fullest opportunity for judging of the qualities of the sepoy troops. I have given an abstract of his account as laid before Parliament.

‡ 'It was by one of our own sepoys' (the Council of Fort St. David observe, in a despatch dated 2d September, 1748, in which they pass an eulogium on the character of Mr. Haliburton) 'that he had the misfortune to be killed, who shot him upon his reprimanding him for some offence; the poor gentleman' (they add)

It appears from other authorities, that the first sepoys who were raised by the English were either Mahomedans or Hindoos of very high caste being chiefly Rajpoots. One of the first services on which the regular sepoys of Madras were employed was the defence of Arcot, A. D. 1751. The particulars of that siege, which forms a remarkable feature in the life of the celebrated Clive, have been given by an eloquent and faithful historian;* but he has not informed us of one occurrence that took place, and which, as it illustrates the character of the Indian soldiers, well merited to be preserved. When provisions were very low, the Hindoo sepoys entreated their commander to allow them to boil the rice (the only food left) for the whole garrison. 'Your English soldiers,' they said, 'can eat from our hands, though we cannot from theirs; we will allot as their share every grain of the rice, and subsist ourselves by drinking the water in which it has been boiled.' I state this remarable anecdote from an authority I cannot doubt, as it refers to the most unexceptionable contemporary witnesses.

During all the wars of Clive, of Lawrence, of Smith, and of Coote, the sepoys of Madras continued to display the same valour and attachment. In the years 1780, 1781, and 1782, they suffered hardships of a nature almost unparalleled; there was hardly a corps that was not 20 months in arrears; they were supported, it is true, by a daily allowance of rice, but this was not enough to save many of their families from being the victims of that dreadful famine which during these years wasted the Company's dominions in India. Their fidelity never gave way in this hour of extreme trial, and they repaid with gratitude and attachment the kindness and consideration with which they were treated by their European officers, who, being few in number, but, generally speaking, very efficient, tried every means that could conciliate the regard, excite the pride, or stimulate the valour of those they commanded.

In the campaigns of 1790 and 1791 against Tippoo Sultaun, the sepoys of this establishment showed their usual zeal and courage; but the number of European troops which were now intermixed with them, lessened their opportunities of distinguishing themselves, and though improved in discipline, they perhaps fell in their own estimation. The native army in some degree became a secondary one, and the pride of those of whom it was composed was lowered. The campaigns of Lord Cornwallis and General Meadows were certainly not inferior, either in their operations or results, to those of Sir Eyre Coote; but every officer can tell how differently they are regarded by the sepoys who served in both; the latter may bring to their memory the distresses and hardships which they suffered, and perhaps the recollection of children who perished from famine, but it is associated with a sense of their own importance at that period to the Government they served, with the

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'died next day, and the villian did not live so long, for his comrades that stood by cut him to pieces immediately.' The name of Mr. Haliburton was long cherished by the Madras native troops, and about 20 years ago, on an examination of old grants, some veterans, wearing medals, appeared as claimants, who called themselves Haliburton Saheb Ka sepoy, or Haliburton's soldiers.

* Orme.

pride of fidelity and patient valour. The pictures of these three distinguished leaders are in the great room of the Exchange at Madras; to that (I speak of 10 years ago) when a battalion comes into garrison the old sepoys lead their families. Wallis and Meadows (these are the names by which the two first commanders are known to them) are pointed out as great and brave chiefs; but it is to the image of their favourite, Coote, the pilgrimage is made, and the youngest of their children are taught to pay a respect bordering on devotion to this revered leader.

In the year 1796, new regulations were introduced into the Indian army, the whole form of which was in fact changed. Instead of single battalions of a thousand men, commanded by a captain, who was selected from the European corps in the Hon. Company's service, and a subaltern to each company, they were formed into regiments of two battalions, to which officers were appointed of the same rank, and nearly of the same number, as to a battalion in the service of His Majesty.

The general history of the native army of Fort St. George is short. Sepoys were first disciplined, as has been stated, on that establishment in 1748; they were at that period, and for some time afterwards, in independent companies, under subadars or native captains. Mahomed Esof, one of the most distinguished of those officers, rose by his talents and courage to the general command of the whole; and the name of this hero, for such he was, occurs almost as often in the page of the English historian* of India as that of Lawrence and Clive. As the numbers of the native army increased, the form changed. In A.D. 1766, we find 10 battalions of 1,000 men each, and three European officers to each corps. In 1770, there were 18 battalions of similar strength; and 1784 the number of this army had increased to 2,000 native cavalry and 28,000 infantry; a considerable reduction was made at this period, but subsequent wars and conquests have caused a great increase.

A few remarks on the appearance and conduct of this army, with some anecdotes of remarkable individuals, will fully illustrate its character, and convey a just idea of the elements of which it is composed.

The native cavalry of Madras was originally raised by the Nabob of the Carnatic. The first corps embodied into a regiment under the command of European officers, on the suggestion of General Joseph Smith, served in the campaign of 1768 in the Mysore. From 1771 to 1776, the cavalry force was greatly augmented, but then again declined both in numbers and efficiency. The proportion that was retained nominally in the service of the Nabob, but actually in that of the Company, served in the campaigns of 1780, 1781, 1782, and 1783, and was formally transferred, with the European officers attached to it, to the Company's service in 1784. The prospect of fortune which the liberality of an Indian prince offered, attracted to this corps many active and enterprising European officers, and the favour which a Native Court extended to its choicest troops filled the ranks of its regiments of regular cavalry with the prime of the Mahomedan youth† of the Carnatic. When this

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* Orme.

† There cannot be men more suited, from their frame and disposition, for the duty of light cavalry than those of which this corps is composed. They are, gene-

corps was in the service of the Nabob of the Carnatic, though it was often very highly distinguished, the intrigues of a venal Court and irregular payments caused frequent mutinies. Since it has been transferred to the Company's establishment, a period of more than 30 years, its career has been one of faithful service and of brilliant achievement, unstained by any example, that I can recollect, of disaffection or of defeat. The two severest trials of the courage and discipline of this corps were at Assaye and Vellore; in both these services they were associated with the 19th Dragoons.

The distinguished commander* of that gallant regiment had, from the day of its arrival in India, laboured to establish the ties of mutual and cordial regard between the European and native soldiers. His success was complete. His own fame while he remained in India was promoted by their combined efforts, and the friendship which he established, and which had continued for many years, was after his departure consummated upon the plains of Assaye. At the most critical moment of a battle which ranks amongst the hardest fought of those that have been gained by the illustrious Wellington, the British dragoons, when making their extremest efforts, saw their Asiatic fellow soldiers keep pace for pace, and give blow for blow. A more arduous task awaited the latter, when the battalions of native infantry, which formed the garrison of Vellore, were led by the infatuation of the moment to rise upon and murder the Europeans of that garrison. The fidelity of the native cavalry did not shrink from the severe trial, and after the gates of the fortress were blown open, their sabres were as deeply† stained as those of the English dragoons with the blood of their misguided and guilty countrymen.

But a few authentic anecdotes of some of the most distinguished individuals of the native cavalry of Madras will show, better than volumes, the high spirit that pervades that corps.

In the campaign of 1791, when Secunder Beg, one of the oldest subadars of the native cavalry, was riding at a little distance on the flank of his troop, two or three horsemen of Tippoo's army, favoured by some brushwood, came suddenly upon him; the combat had hardly commenced when the son of the subadar, who was a havildar or serjeant in the same regiment, flew to his father's aid and slew the foremost of his opponents; the others fled; but nothing could exceed the rage of the old man at his son's conduct; he put him instantly under a guard, and insisted upon his being brought to condign punishment for quitting his ranks without leave. It was with the greatest difficulty that Colonel Floyd, who commanded the force, could reconcile him to the disgrace he conceived he had suffered (to use his own expression) from his enemy 'being taken from him by a presumptuous boy in front of his regiment.'

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rally speaking, from five feet five to five feet ten inches in height, of light but active make. Their strength is preserved and improved by moderation in their diet, and by exercise common to the military tribes, and which are calculated to increase the muscular force.

* The late General Sir John Floyd, Bart.

† This fact is stated upon the high authority of a respectable officer who belonged to the 19th Dragoons, and was with them on this memorable occasion.

Cawder Beg, late subadar of the fourth regiment, may be deemed throughout his life, as one of the most distinguished officers of the native cavalry at Madras. In 1790, he was attached to Colonel Floyd as an orderly subadar, when that officer, who had been reconnoitering with a small detachment, was attacked by a considerable body of the enemy's horse. Nothing but the greatest exertions of every individual could have saved the party from being cut off. Those of Cawder Beg were the most conspicuous, and they received a reward, of which he was proud to the last hour of his life: an English sabre was sent to him, with the name of Colonel Floyd upon it, and an inscription, stating that it was the reward of valour. But personal courage was the least quality of Cawder Beg: his talents eminently fitted him for the exercise of military command. During the campaign of 1799, it was essential to prevent the enemy's looties (a species of Cossack horse), from penetrating between the columns and the rear guard, and plundering any part of that immense train of provisions and luggage, which it was necessary to carry to Seringapatam. Cawder Beg, with two or three of his relations from the native cavalry and a select body of infantry, were placed under my orders. I was then political representative with the army of the subah of the Deckan, and commanded a considerable body of the troops of that prince. I had applied for Cawder Beg on account of his reputation, and prevailed upon Meer Allum, the leader of the subah's forces, to place a corps of 2,000 men of his best regular horse under the subadar's orders. Two days after the corps was formed, an orderly trooper came to tell me that Cawder Beg was engaged with some of the enemy's horsemen. I hastened to the spot with some alarm for the result, determined if Cawder Beg was victor, to reprove him most severely for a conduct so unsuited to the station in which he had been placed. The fears I entertained for his safety were soon dispelled, as I saw him advancing on foot with two swords in his hand, which he hastened to present to me, begging at the same time I would restrain my indignation at his apparent rashness till I heard his reasons; then speaking to me aside, he said 'Though the General of the Nizam's army was convinced by your statement of my competence to the command you have entrusted me with, I observed that the high-born and high-titled leaders of the horse he placed under my orders, looked at my close jacket,† straight pantaloons, and European boots with contempt, and thought themselves disgraced by being told to obey me. I was, therefore, tempted, on seeing a well-mounted horseman of Tippoo's challenge their whole line, to accept a combat, which they declined. I promised not to use fire-arms, and succeeded in cutting him down; a relation came to avenge his death; I wounded him, and have brought him prisoner. You will' (he added, smiling,) 'hear a good report of me at the dubar (Court) of Meer Allum this evening, and the service will go on better for what has passed, and I promise most sacredly to fight no more single combats.'

When I went in the evening to visit the Meer Allum, I found at his tent a number of the principal chiefs, and among others those that had been with Cawder Beg, with whose praises I was assailed from every quarter. 'He was,' they said,

† The native troops in the English service wear a uniform very like that of Europeans.

'a perfect hero, a Rustum;* it was an honour to be commanded by so great a leader.' The consequence was, as the subadar had anticipated, that the different chiefs who were placed under him vied in respect and obedience; and so well were the incessant efforts of this body directed, that scarcely a load of grain was lost; hardly a day passed that the activity and stratagem of Cawder Beg did not delude some of the enemy's plunderers to their destruction.

It would fill a volume to give a minute account of the actions of this gallant officer: he was the native aide-de-camp of General Dugald Campbell, when that officer reduced the ceded districts;† he attended Sir Arthur Wellesley (the present Duke of Wellington) in the campaign of 1803, and was employed by that officer in the most confidential manner. At the end of this campaign, during which he had several opportunities of distinguishing himself, Cawder Beg, who had received a pension from the English Government, and whose pride was flattered by being created an omrah‡ of the Deckan by the Nizam, retired; but he did not long enjoy the distinction he had obtained: he died in 1806, worn out with the excessive fatigue to which he had for many years exposed himself.

The body guard of the Governor of Madras has always been a very select corps, and the notice and attention with which both the native officers and men of the corps have invariably been treated, may be adduced as one of the causes which have led to its obtaining distinction in every service on which it has been employed.

On the 13th of May, 1791, Lord Cornwallis returned his thanks in the warmest manner to this corps and its gallant commanding officer, Captain Alexander Grant, for a charge upon the enemy. It obtained still further distinction under Captain James Grant, the brother of its former commander, when employed, in the year 1801, against the Poligars, a race of warlike men who inhabit the southern part of the Madras territory. There are indeed few examples of a more desperate and successful charge than was made, during that service, by this small corps upon a phalanx of resolute pikemen, more than double its own numbers; and the behaviour of Shaikh Ibrahim, the senior subadar (a native captain), on that occasion, merits to be commemorated.

This officer, who was alike remarkable for his gallantry, and unrivalled skill as a horseman, anticipated, from his experience of the enemy, all that would happen. He told Captain Grant what he thought would be the fate of those who led the charge at the same moment that he urged it, and heard, with animated delight, the resolution of his commander to attempt an exploit which was to reflect such glory on the corps. The leaders of the body guard and almost one-third of its number fell, as was expected; but the shock broke the order of their opponents, and they obtained a complete victory. Shaikh Ibrahim was pierced with several pikes, one was in the throat; he held his hand to this, as if eager to keep life till he asked the

* The Persian Hercules.

† These districts which were ceded to the English Government by the treaty of Seringapatam in 1799, lie between Mysore Proper and the territories of the Subah of the Deckan.

‡ He received the title of Cawder Nuaz Khan, or Cawder the favoured Lord.

fate of Captain Grant. The man of whom he inquired pointed to that officer, who was lying on the ground and apparently dead, with a pike through his lungs; the subadar, with an expression of regret that he had disdained to show for his own fate, pulled the pike from the wound, and instantly expired. His character and his behaviour in the last moment of existence are fully described in the following general order, which was issued on this occasion by the Government of Fort St. George:—

'A rare combination of talents has rendered the character of Shaikh Ibrahim familiar to the officers of the army; to cool decision and daring valour, he added that sober judgement, and those honourable sentiments that raised him far above the level of his rank in life. An exploit of uncommon energy and personal exertion terminated his career, and the last effort of his voice breathed honour, attachment, and fidelity.

'The Governor in Council, desirous of showing to the army his Lordship's* sense of the virtue and attainments which have rendered the death of this native officer a severe loss to the service, has been pleased to confer on his family a pension equal to the pay of a subadar of the body guard, being 30 pagodas a month. And his Lordship has further directed that a certificate to this effect, translated into Persian and Hindoostanee, may be presented to the family, as a record of the gift, and a tribute to the memory of the brave subadar Shaikh Ibrahim.'

The posthumous praise given to Shaikh Ibrahim appeared to have inspired others with a desire to share his fate, that they might attain his fame. A jemadar of the same corps, some days afterwards, being appointed with a few select men to watch a road, where it was thought the chief whom they were attacking might try to escape, with one or two followers, determined, when a whole column came out, to make an attempt against its leader, and such was the surprise at seeing five or six horsemen ride into a body of between 200 or 300 men, that he had cut down the chief before they had recovered from their astonishment; he succeeded in riding out of the column, but was soon afterwards shot. He had, when he meditated this attack, sent a person to inform Captain J. Grant (who had recovered of his wounds) of his intention. 'The captain will discover,' he observed, 'that there are more Shaikh Ibrahims than one in the body guard.' Captain Grant, when the service was over, erected tombs over these gallant officers: a constant lamp is kept at them, which is supported by a trifling monthly donation from every man in the body guard, and the noble spirit of the corps is perpetuated by the contemplation of these regimental shrines (for such they may be termed) of heroic valour.

Shaikh Moheedeen, a subadar of the body guard of Madras, who was one of the first officers appointed to the corps of native horse artillery, accompanied me to Persia, and was left with a detachment of his corps, under the command of Cap-

* Lord Clive (the present Lord Powis) was at this period Governor of Madras; and it is but justice to that nobleman to state, that virtue, talent, or valour, either in European or native, were certain, under his administration, of attaining distinction and reward.

tain Lindsay, to aid in instructing the Persians in military tactics. This small body of men and their gallant European commander were engaged in several campaigns in Georgia, and this conduct has obtained not only for the subadar, but for all the men of his party, marked honours and reward, both from the Persian Government and their own. Their exertions received additional importance from the scene on which they acted, for it is not easy to calculate the future benefits which may result from the display of the superior courage and discipline of the native soldiers of India on the banks of the Araxes.

The native infantry of Madras is generally composed of Mahomedans and Hindoos of good caste: at its first establishment none were enlisted but men of high military tribes. In the progress of time a considerable change took place, and natives of every description were enrolled in the service. Though some corps that were almost entirely formed of the lowest and most despised races of men obtained considerable reputation, it was feared their encouragement might produce disgust, and particularly when they gained, as they frequently did, the rank of officers. Orders were in consequence given to recruit from none but the most respectable classes of society, and many consider the regular and orderly behaviour of these men as one of the benefits which have resulted from this system.

The infantry sepoy of Madras is rather a small man, but he is of an active make, and capable of undergoing great fatigue, upon a very slender diet. We find no man arrive at greater precision in all his military exercises; his moderation, his sobriety, his patience, give him a steadiness that is almost unknown to Europeans; but though there exists in this body of men a fitness to attain mechanical perfection as soldiers, there are no men whose mind it is of more consequence to study. The most marked general feature of the character of the native of India is a proneness to obedience, accompanied by a great susceptibility of good or bad usage; and there are few in that country who are more imbued with these feelings than the class of which we are now treating. The sepoys of Madras, when kindly treated, have invariably shown great attachment* to the service; and when we know that this class of men can be brought, without harshness or punishment, to the highest discipline, we neither can nor ought to have any toleration for those who pursue a different system; and the commander-in-chief is unfit for his station who grants his applause to the mere martinet, and forgets, in his temperate zeal, that no perfection in appearance and discipline can make amends for the loss of the temper and attachment of the Native soldiers under his command.

We discover in the pages of Orme many examples of that patient endurance of privations and fatigue, and that steady valour, which has since characterized the native infantry of Madras. Their conduct in the war against Hyder Ally in 1766, was such as justly to entitle them to admiration. In the battle of Trinomalee and Molwaggle they displayed all the qualifications of good and steady soldiers; and it

* In old corps, that have been chiefly recruited within the territories which have been long in the possession of the Company, desertion is of very rare occurrence.

The first battalion of the 3d native infantry marched, in 1803, from near Madura (of which district, and Trichinopoly, a great proportion of its men were natives), to the banks of the Taptee, a distance of above 1,000 miles, without one desertion!

was during this war that the 5th battalion of native infantry, commanded by Capt. Calvert, distinguished itself by the defence of Ambore, and obtained the honour of bearing a representation of that mountain fortress on one of its standards. To the campaigns of Sir Eyre Coote we have already alluded, and have spoken of the unshaken fidelity which the sepoys of Madras evinced at that trying juncture; but if a moment was to be named when the existence of the British power depended upon its native troops, we should fix upon the battle of Portonovo. Driven to the seashore, attacked by an enemy exulting in recent success,* confident in its numbers, and strong in the terror of his name, every circumstance combined that could dishearten the small body of men on whom the fate of the war depended: not a heart shrunk from the trial. Of the European troops it is of course superfluous to speak; but all the native battalions appear, from every account of the action, to have been entitled to equal praise on this memorable occasion; and it is difficult to say whether they were most distinguished when suffering with a patient courage, under a heavy cannonade, when receiving and repulsing the shock of the flower of Hyder's cavalry, or when attacking in their turn the troops of that monarch, who, baffled in all his efforts, retreated from this field of anticipated conquest with the loss of his most celebrated commander and thousands of his bravest soldiers.

I shall not dwell upon the different actions in the war against Tippoo and the Mahrattas, in which the Madras sepoys signalized themselves, but merely state some anecdotes of corps and individuals which appear calculated to give a fair impression of the general character of this class of the defenders of our empire in India.

The natives of India have, generally speaking, a rooted dislike to the sea; and when we consider the great privations and hardships to which Hindoos of high caste are subject on a long voyage, during which some of them, from prejudices of caste, subsist solely on parched grain, we feel less surprise at the occasional mutinies which have been caused by orders for their embarkation than at the zeal and attachment they have often shown upon such trying occasions.

A mutiny had occurred in the 9th battalion when ordered to embark for Bombay, in 1779 or 1780, which however had been quelled by the spirit and decision of its commandant, Captain Kelly. A more serious result had accompanied a similar order for the embarkation of some companies of a corps in the Northern Circars, who, when they came to Vizagapatam, the port where they were to take shipping,

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* The defeat of Colonel Baillie's detachment, which occurred at the commencement of this war. The defeat has been variously attributed to bad arrangements in the general plans of the campaign, to mismanagement on the part of the commanding officer, and to the misconduct of the native troops. It is probable all these causes combined to produce this great misfortune; but we must recollect that the native battalions that were chiefly accused of bad behaviour on this occasion were raw levies, who had never before seen service, and most of whom had hardly been in the army a sufficient time to be disciplined. The men composing these corps had been hastily raised in the Circars, or northern possessions of Madras, and their conduct created a prejudice (which experience has since proved to be unjust) against recruits from this quarter.

had risen upon their European officers, and in their violence shot all except one or two who escaped on board the vessel appointed to carry their men.

These events rendered Government averse to a repetition of experiments which had proved so dangerous; but in the year 1795, when the island of Ceylon, and the possessions of the Dutch in the eastern seas were to be reduced, Lord Hobart,* who was then Governor of Fort St. George, made a successful appeal to the zeal and attachment of the native troops, who volunteered in corps for foreign service.

A still greater call for men was necessary when an army was formed, in 1797, for the attack of Manilla, and many of the best battalions in the service showed a forwardness to be employed in this expedition. Among these, one of the most remarkable for its appearance and discipline was a battalion of the 22d regiment. This fine corps was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel James Oram,† an officer not more distinguished for his personal zeal and gallantry, than for a thorough knowledge of the men under his command, whose temper he had completely preserved, at the same time that he had imparted to them the highest perfection in their dress and discipline. When he proposed to his corps, on parade, to volunteer for Manilla, they only requested to know whether Colonel Oram would go with them: the answer was, 'he would.' 'Will he stay with us?' was the second question. The reply was in the affirmative; the whole corps exclaimed 'to Europe, to Europe!' and the alacrity and spirit with which they subsequently embarked showed they would as readily have gone to the shores of the Atlantic as to an island of the Eastern Ocean. Not a man of the corps deserted from the period they volunteered for service till they embarked; and such was the contagion of their enthusiasm, that several sepoys who were missing from one of the battalions in garrison at Madras were found, when the expedition returned, to have deserted to join the 22d under Colonel Oram. This anecdote is stated with a full impression of the importance of the lesson it conveys. It is through their affections alone that such a class of men can be well commanded.

I find in the Madras native army many instances of unconquerable attachment to the service to which they belong. Among these none can be more remarkable than that of Syud Ibrahim, commandant of the Tanjore cavalry, who was made prisoner by Tippoo Sultan in 1781. The character of this distinguished officer was well known to his enemy, and the highest rank and station was offered to tempt him to enter into the employment of the state of Mysore. His steady refusal occasioned his being treated with such rigour, and was attended, as his fellow-prisoners (who were British officers) thought, with such danger to his life, that they,

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* Lord Hobart, afterwards Earl of Buckinghamshire, (at whose desire this memorandum was written), was very successful in inspiring zeal in every branch of the Government under his charge, and his attention was peculiarly directed to the conciliation of the natives. The local information he acquired at this period was subsequently matured by a study of the general interests of the Indian empire; and the life of this virtuous nobleman terminated at a moment when his services, from the high station he had attained of President of the Board of Control, were most valuable to his country.

† This officer has been dead upwards of 15 years.

from a generous feeling, contemplating his condition as a Mahomedan and a native of India as in some essential points different from their own, recommended him to accept the offers of the Sultan; but the firm allegiance of Syud Ibrahim would admit of no compromise, and he treated every overture as an insult. His virtuous resolution provoked at last the personal resentment of Tippoo, and when the English prisoners were released in 1784, the commandant was removed to a dungeon in the mountain fortress of Couley Droog, where he terminated his existence. His sister, who had left her home, the Carnatic, to share the captivity of her brother, was subsequently wounded in the storming of Seringapatam. She, however, fortunately recovered, and the Government of Fort St. George granted her a pension of 52 pagodas and a half per month, or £250. per annum, being the full pay of a native commandant of cavalry. A tomb was also erected at the place where Syud Ibrahim died; and Government endowed it with an establishment sufficient to mantain a fakeer or priest, and to keep two lamps continually burning at the shrine of this faithful soldier.

Among the many instances of the effect which pride in themselves, and the notice of their superiors, inspire in this class of troops, I may state the conduct of the first battalion of the eighth regiment of infantry, which became, at the commencement of his career in India, a favourite corps* of the Duke of Wellington. They were with him on every service; and the men of his corps used often to call themselves 'Wellesley ka Pulten, or Wellesley's battalion, and their conduct on every occasion was calculated to support the proud title they had assumed. A staff officer,† after the battle of Assaye, saw a number of the Mahomedans of this battalion assembled, apparently for a funeral; he asked whom they were about to inter; they mentioned the names of five commissioned and non-commissioned officers of a very distinguished family in the corps. 'We are going to put these brothers,‡ into one grave,' said one of the party. The officer, who was well acquainted with the individuals who had been slain, expressed his regret, and was about to offer some consolation to the survivors, but he was stopped by one of the men: 'There is no occasion,' he said, 'for such feelings or expressions; these men (pointing to the dead bodies) were sepoys (soldiers); they have died in the performance of their duties; the Government they served will protect their children, who will soon fill the ranks they lately occupied.'

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* This corps, some years before the period of which we are now speaking, attained a very high reputation under Captain Dunwoody, an officer whose memory continues to be respected and cherished in the native army of Fort St. George.

† The respected and distinguished officer, the late Sir Robert Barclay, to whom we owe this and the following anecdote of the Madras troops, concludes a note he had been kind enough to write on the subject with the following remark:—'I have seen (he observes) the Madras sepoys engaged in great and trifling actions more than 50 times; I never knew them behave ill, or backward, but once, when two havildars (or serjeants) that were next to me, quitted their post, from seeing the fire chiefly directed to me; but it is (he adds) but justice to state that, on other occasions, I have owed my life to the gallantry of my covering havildar."

‡ The term 'brothers' extends, in India, to first cousins.

Though sensible I have dwelt too long upon this part of my subject, I cannot forbear recording an example of that patience with which the native troops meet privation and distress. In 1804, the subsidiary force in the Deccan, commanded by Colonel Haliburton, was inclosed between two rivers, which became suddenly so swollen as to cut off their supplies of provisions. It was a period of general famine, and the communication was cut off with the grain dealers, from whom alone they could expect a supply. All the rice in camp was found to be barely sufficient for five days' allowance, at a very reduced rate, to the European part of the force. Issues to the sepoys were stopt, but while they were left to the scanty subsistence they might be able to procure for themselves, they were appointed the sole guards over that grain, from all share in which they were from necessity excluded. This duty was performed with the strictest care, and the most cheerful submission. Fortunately the waters subsided, and an ample supply prevented their feeling that extreme of famine, the prospect of which they had contemplated with an attention to discipline and a composure of mind which even astonished those best acquainted with their habits of order and obedience.

Bombay Army.—It was at Bombay that the first native corps were disciplined by the English. Of the exact date I am ignorant, but regular sepoys are noticed in the account of the transactions of that part of India some time before they were embodied at either Madras or Bengal. A corps of 100 sepoys from Bombay, and 400 from Tellicherry, is mentioned as having joined the army at Madras in A.D. 1747, and a company of Bombay sepoys, which had gone with troops from Madras to Bengal, were present at the victory of Plassey. The sepoys at Bombay continued long in independent companies, commanded by subadars or native captains. As the possessions and political relations of that settlement were enlarged, its army increased. The companies were formed into battalions under European officers; and during the war with the Mahrattas, A. D. 1780, we find the establishment consisting of 15 battalions. These, at the termination of the war with Tippoo, 1783, were reduced to six, and one battalion of marines. In 1788, its numbers were augmented to twelve battalions. In 1796, it was reformed into an establishment of four regiments of two battalions each, from which it has been progressively raised, by the acquisition of territory and subsidiary alliances, to its present establishment.

The men of the native infantry of Bombay* are robust and hardy, and capable of enduring great fatigue upon very slender diet. This army has, from its origin to the present day, been indiscriminately composed of all classes, Mahomedans, Hindoos, Jews, and some few Christians. Among the Hindoos, those of the lowest tribes of Mahrattas and the Purwarrie, Soortee and Frost† sects, are much more numerous than the Rajpoots and higher castes. Jews have already been favourite soldiers in this army, and great numbers of them attain the rank of commissioned

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* Since this was written, a considerable change has taken place in the composition of the Bombay native army.

† The Purwarrie are generally from the southward of Bombay, the Frosts and Soortees from the northward. These are men of what is termed very low caste, being hardly above what are called pariahs, on the coast of Coromandel.

officers.* It is probably owing to the peculiar composition, and to the local situation of the territories in which they are employed, that the sepoys of Bombay have at all periods been found ready to embark on foreign service. They are, in fact, familiar to the sea, and only a small proportion of them are incommoded in a voyage by those privations to which others are subject from prejudices of caste. But this is only one of the merits of the Bombay native soldier: he is patient, faithful, and brave, and attached in a remarkable degree to his European officers. There cannot be a class of men more cheerful under privation and difficulties. I question, indeed, if any army can produce more extraordinary examples of attachment to the government it served and to its officers than that of Bombay.

Towards the close of the war with Tippoo, in 1782, the whole of the force under General Mathews were made prisoners. The Sultan, sensible of the advantages he might derive from the accession of a body of well-disciplined men, made every offer that he thought could tempt the English sepoys into his service, but in vain. He ordered them to work upon his fortifications, particularly Chittledroog, which was very unhealthy, upon a seer (two pounds) of raggy (a small grain like mustard seed) and a pice (about a halfpenny) per day. On this pittance they were rigidly kept at hard labour through the day, and in close confinement at night, subject to the continued insults of their guards; but neither insults, oppression, nor sickness, could subdue their fidelity; and at the peace in 1783, 1,500† of the natives of India, who had been made prisoners near the mountains of the coast of Malabar, marched a distance of 500 miles to Madras to embark on a voyage of six or eight weeks, to rejoin the army to which they belonged at Bombay. During the march from Mysore the guards of the Sultan carefully separated those men, whenever they encamped, by a tank (a large reservoir) or some other supposed insurmountable obstacle, from the European prisoners, among whom were their officers. Not a night passed (I write from a paper of an officer of distinction who was a witness of what he states) that some of the sepoys did not elude the vigilance of their guards by swimming across the tank, or by passing the sentries, that they might see their officers, to whom they brought such small sums as they had saved from their pittance, begging they would condescend to accept the little all they had to give. "We can live upon any thing (they used to say,) but you require mutton and beef."

To the service in Egypt, in 1800, the Bombay troops proceeded with the same alacrity as to every other, and neither the new disorders (to them) of the opthalmia or plague, from both of which they suffered, abated in the least degree their ardour. It happened that this force, and that from Bengal, were too late to share in the fame which our arms acquired in Egypt: but we can hardly contemplate an

* I write from a memorandum of an officer of rank and experience in the Bombay army. He observes, 'the Jews are clean, obedient, and good soldiers, make excellent non-commissioned and commissioned officers, until they arrive at an advanced age, when they often fall off, and turn drunkards.'

† A considerable number of the sepoys taken with General Mathews had, at the hazard of their lives, made their escape from the Sultan, and reached Bombay, through the Mahratta territories.

event in any history more calculated to inspire reflection on the character of that transcendent power which our country had attained, than the meeting of her European and Indian army on the shores of the Mediterranean.

During the progress of the war with France, subsequent to 1803, several parties of the Marine battalions of Bombay sepoys were captured on board of the Company's cruizers and carried to the Isle of France, where they were treated in a manner that reflects no credit upon the local government of the island, which probably expected that the hardships they endured would make them give way to the temptations continually held out, and induce them to take service; but in this they were disappointed: not one of those men could be persuaded to enter into the employment of the enemies of Great Britain; and when the Isle of France was captured, they met with that notice which they had so well merited. The Government of Bombay granted to every individual who survived his captivity a silver medal, as a memorial of the sense which it entertained of his proved fidelity and attachment.

From the documents in my possesion, many examples of individual heroism in the Bombay sepoy might be given, but I shall content myself with two, which will show in a very strong point of view the nature of their attachment to their European officers.

Four years ago, when the commanding officer* of a battalion on the Bombay establishment was proceeding along the banks of a ravine, with eight or ten men of his corps, to search for some lions, which had been seen near the cantonment of Kaira, in Guzerat, a royal tiger suddenly sprang upon him. The ground gave way, and the tiger and Major Hull rolled together to the bottom of the ravine. Though this fall prevented the latter from being killed by the first assault, still his fate seemed certain; and those who know, from having witnessed it, the terror which the attack of this fierce animal inspires, can only appreciate the character of that feeling which led every sepoy who was with him to rush at once to his succour. The tiger fell under their bayonets, though not before it had wounded two of the assailants most desperately; one having lost his leg, and the other been so lacerated as to be rendered unfit for future service as a soldier. These wounds, however, were deemed trivial by those who sustained them, when they saw that the officer whom they loved had escaped unhurt from his perilous situation.

The second example of this strong feeling of duty is still more remarkable, as it was not merely encountering danger, but a devotion to certain death. I take the account of the transaction from a document† in which it was recorded at the period of its occurrence.

In 1797, Captain Packenham, in His Majesty's ship Resistance, accompanied by some small vessels of war belonging to the Company, took possession of Copang, the chief Dutch settlement on the eastern Isle of Timor. Lieutenant Frost, of the Bombay marine, commander of the Intrepid cruizer, who was to be appointed Governor of Copang, had taken a house on shore, where he expected Captain Packenham to meet the Dutch Governor, and make arrangements for the future ad-

* The present Lieutenant-Colonel Hull.

† Madras newspaper, 27th Sept. 1797.

ministration of peace. The Malays had formed a plan, by which it was settled that the moment Captain Packenham landed to attend this meeting, they were to rise and murder all the Englishmen on shore. Fortunately something occurred to induce Captain Packenham to defer his visit; but he sent his boat, and its reaching the beach was the signal for the commencement of the massacre. Nearly 20 persons were slain. A large party had rushed to Lieutenant Frost's house. The head of his surgeon had been struck off, and his own destruction seemed inevitable, when two sepoys of the Bombay marine battalion, whom he had landed from his vessel, exclaimed to him, 'Save yourself by flight, we will fight and die;' at the same time exposing themselves to the fury of their assailants, and giving their commander time to escape to a boat.' The sepoys, after a resistance as protracted as they could render it, were slain, and their heads exposed on pikes explained their fate to their lamenting companions on board the Intrepid. Captain Packenham took prompt and ample vengeance of this treachery; he opened a heavy fire upon the place, under which he landed an efficient force, which defeated the Malays, who fled after losing 200 men.

Bengal Army.—I shall not dwell on details connected with the progress of this army, from a few companies who landed with Lord Clive in 1756, to its present number, which is nearly 100,000 effective native soldiers, commanded by about 2,248* European officers, but content myself with noticing those facts which appear best calculated to illustrate the disposition and character of the materials of which it is composed.

The first battalion raised in Bengal were 10 companies of 100 men each, commanded by a captain, with one lieutenant, one ensign and one or two serjeants. Each company had a standard of the same ground as the facings, with a different device, (suited to its subadar, or native captain), of a sabre, a crescent, or a dagger. The Company's colours, with the union in one corner, were carried by the grenadiers. The first battalions were known by the name of the captain by whom they were commanded, and though, in 1764, 19 corps received a numerical rank, corresponding with the actual rank of their commandants at that period, this did not prevent them from continuing to be know under their former appellation, or from assuming the name of a favourite leader; the 15th battalion, was raised in Calcutta in 1757, and called the Mathews, from the name of its first commander. This corps was with Colonel Ford in 1759, when that able officer, with 346 Europeans and 1,400 sepoys, besieged and took by storm the strong fortress of Masulipatam, making prisoners a French garrison, who, both in Europeans and natives, were nearly double his numbers. In this daring and arduous enterprise we are told by the historian of India that 'the sepoys (who lost in killed and wounded on the storm 200 men) behaved with equal gallantry as the Europeans, both in the real and false attacks.'† In 1763, in the wars with the Vizier of Oude, the 'Mathews,' which was with the force under the command of Major Adams, is stated

* This is independent of the officers of artillery and engineers, and of invalid corps. In 1760, the whole of the European officers in the service of the Company in Bengal amounted to 18 captains, 26 lieutenants, and 15 ensigns.

† Orme's History of India, vol. iii. p. 489.

when the Company's European regiment was broken by cavalry, to have nobly supported his Majesty's 84th regiment, whose courage restored the action. Major Adams died shortly afterwards, and a general mutiny of the whole force took place, in which the sepoys at first joined, but were soon after reclaimed to their duty. At the battle of Buxar, which was fought in 1764, all the native corps appear to have behaved well.

In 1782, 'the Mathews' was one of three Bengal corps who mutined, under an apprehension of being embarked for foreign service; and though the conduct of those corps* was remarkable for the total absence of that spirit of general insubordination and disposition to outrage by which mutinies of soldiery are usually marked, they were in the ensuing year broken and drafted into some other battalions. 'Thus fell 'the Mathews' (says Captain Williams), a corps more highly spoken of during the 26 years it existed than any battalion in the service; and at this day (he adds), if you meet any of the old fellows who once belonged to it, and ask them what corps they came from, they will erect their heads and say, 'Mathews ka Pultan,' or, 'Mathews' battalion.'

The present second battalion of the 12th regiment appears, from Captain Williams's account, to have been raised some months before 'the Mathews.' He indeed calls it the first raised battalion. This corps was at the battle of Plassey. It was named by the sepoys the Lal Pultan, or the Red† Battalion, and afterwards Gallis,‡ from the name of one of the first captains. It was associated with the

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* I cannot refrain from giving the following account of this mutiny, which is written by an officer who witnessed it. It is very characteristic of the Bengal sepoys—'The mutiny, (this officer observes), excepting a general spirit of murmur and discontent, was confined to the single instance of refusing the service, and whilst in that state, preventing the march of two companies which were ordered to protect stores, &c. prepared for the expedition. The men were guilty of no violence of any description, and treated their officers with the usual respect. The discipline of the corps was carried on as usual; and notwithstanding some of the native officers and men who had acted the most conspicuous part were confined in the quarter-guards of their respective regiments, no attempt was made to release them. After a lapse of several weeks, a general court-martial was held, and two subadars and one or two sepoys were sentenced to death, by being blown away from the mouth of the cannon. The sentence was carried into execution, in the presence of those troops which had mutinied; excepting one other regiment, which was at the station, without the smallest opposition or even murmur; and the troops were marched round the spot of execution, amidst the mangled remains of their fellow soldiers, without any other apparent feeling than the horror which such a scene was calculated to excite, and pity for their fate'. (It was thus also at Barrackpore when the mutiny took place relative to proceeding to Rangoon.—R.M.M.)

The intended service was given up, and the regiments which had mutinied were pardoned in general orders; but on the return to the Bengal provinces of General Goddard's detachment, the officers and men of the regiments which had mutinied were drafted into those old battalions.

† Probably from its dress.

‡ The name of this officer (who is still alive) is Galliez. The natives of India

Mathews in all its early service, particularly at Masulipatam, Gheretty, &c.; but in 1764 it mutinied, on the pretext of some promises which were made to it having been broken. Having no apparent object, it was easily reduced to obedience; but Major Munro (afterwards Sir Hector Munro), who then commanded the army, thought a severe example necessary, and 28 of the most guilty were tried by a drum-head court-martial, and sentenced to death. Eight of these were directed to be immediately blown away from the guns of the force then at Choprah. As they were on the point of executing the sentence, three grenadiers, who happened to be amongst them, stepped forth, and claimed the privilege of being blown away from the right-hand guns. 'They had always fought on the right (they said), and they hoped they would be permitted to die at that post of honour.' Their request was granted, and they were the first executed. 'I am sure (says Captain Williams, who then belonged to the Royal Marines employed in Bengal, and who was an eye-witness of this remarkable scene) that there was not a dry eye among the marines, although they had been long accustomed to hard service, and two of them had actually been in the execution party which shot Admiral Byng in 1757."

This corps subsequently distinguished itself in 1776 at the battle of Korah. It had been known originally as the first battalion. It was afterwards numbered the 9th, from the rank of its captain. In a new arrangement of the army it was made the 16th, then the 17th. By the regulations of 1796, it has become the 2d of the 12th regiment; and it has of late years, as we shall hereafter have occasion to mention, far outdone its former fame.

A detachment, composed of six native battalions, a corps of native cavalry, and a proportion of artillery, altogether amounting to 103 European officers, and 6,624 native troops, was in 17— sent from Bengal to the relief of the settlement of Bombay. Its first rendezvous was at Calpee, a town on the right bank of the Jumna, near Cawnpore, whence it commenced its march on the 12th June 1778. It reached Rajgurh, a town in Bundlecund, on the 17th August, where it halted so much longer than Mr. Hastings thought necessary, that he removed Colonel Leslie, the commanding officer, and appointed Lieutenant-Colonel Goddard to that charge. Under this active and enterprising officer it continued its route through Malwa and Candeish to Surat, presenting the extraordinary spectacle of a corps of the natives of Hindostan, under the guidance of a few officers, marching from the banks of the Ganges to the westernmost shores of India. During the five years that they were absent from home, the men of this detachment conducted themselves in the most exemplary manner, and acquired distinction in every service in which they were employed. I shall not repeat the warm and animated eulogium which Mr. Hastings passed upon this corps in one of the last general orders he issued to the army in Bengal, but all must subscribe to the truth of his observation, that their conduct showed that 'there are no difficulties which the true spirit of military enterprise is not capable of surmounting.'

The force detached to the Carnatic in 1781 was commanded by Colonel Pearse. It consisted of five regiments, of two small battalions (500 men each) of native in-

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often corrupt English names in an extraordinary manner; Dalrymple is made into Dalduffle; Ochterlony, Lonyochter; Littlejohn, John Little; Shairp, Surrup, &c.

fantry, some native cavalry, and a proportion of artillery. This corps, which marched about 1,100 miles along the sea-coast, through the province of Cuttack, and the northern Circars to Madras, arrived at that Presidency at a most eventful period, and their services were eminently useful to the preservation of our power in that quarter. Among the many occasions which this detachment had of distinguishing itself, the attack on the French lines at Cuddalore in 1783 was the most remarkable. The Bengal sepoys that were engaged on that occasion behaved nobly. It was one of the first times that European troops and the disciplined natives of India had met at the bayonet. The high spirit and bodily vigour of the Rajpoots of the provinces of Behar and Benares (the class of which three-fourths of this army was then composed) proved fully equal to the contest. In a partial action, which took place in a sortie made by the French, the latter were defeated with severe loss; and the memory of this event continues to be cherished with just pride both by the officers and men of the Bengal native army. Had the result of of this affair, and the character of these sepoys, been more generally known, some of our countrymen would have been freed from that excessive alarm which was entertained for the safety of our eastern possessions when the late despot of Continental Europe threatened them with invasion. I trust that every event that can seriously disturb the peace of our Indian empire is at a great distance; but if an European army had crossed the Indus, I should not tremble for its fate. I well know that the approach of such a force would strike no terror into the minds of men of whom I am writing, and that acting with British troops, and led by British officers, they would advance with almost as assured a confidence of victory against a line of well-disciplined Europeans as against a rabble of their own untrained countrymen. They might fail; but they are too bold, and too conscious of their own courage and strength, ever to anticipate defeat.

I should feel hesitation in stating my sentiments so strongly on this subject, if I did not know them to be those which have been entertained and avowed by many eminent commanders,* who have had opportunities of forming a judgment upon this question. When Colonel Pearse's detachment, which had been reduced by service from 5,000 to 2,000 men, returned to Bengal after an absence of four years, the policy of Mr. Hastings heaped every distinction upon them that he thought calculated to reward their merits, or to stimulate others to future exertion of a similar nature. He visited this corps, and his personal conduct towards both the European officers and natives gave grace to his public measures. A lasting impression† was made on the minds of all; and every favour was doubled by the manner in which it was conferred.

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* I can particularly quote the late Lord Lake. No officer ever saw troops under more varied and severe trials than he did the Bengal sepoys. He never spoke of them but with admiration; and was forward to declare, that he considered them equal to a contest with any troops that could be brought against them.

† An officer of rank and distinction (Major-General Sir Henry Worsley), who, when a young subaltern, was an eye-witness of this scene, observes, in a letter which he has written to me on the subject, 'Mr. Hastings, dressed in a plain blue coat, with his head uncovered, rode along the ranks. The troops had the most

The rebellion of Cheyt Singh, the Rajah of Benares, in 1781, must be familiar to all acquainted with Indian history. My purpose in mentioning it, is limited to the object of showing the conduct of the Bengal sepoys under one of the severest trials of fidelity to which they were ever exposed.

The numerous followers of the Rajah had risen upon two companies of sepoys appointed to guard the house in which he was placed under restraint, and killed and wounded the whole of them. The rashness of an European officer had led another party to slaughter in the streets of Ramnagur. Mr. Hastings, who was at Benares when these events occurred, had only a few companies of sepoys to guard his person, and even these he had no money to support. He summoned corps from different quarters to his aid; but when we reflect on the impression which the first success of Cheyt Singh had made, and consider that by far the greatest proportion of his troops with whom Mr. Hastings had overcome the dangers with which he was surrounded were men of the same tribe and country as those against whom they were to act, and that the chief, who was declared a rebel, had long been considered by many of them as their legitimate prince, we must respect the mind that remained firm and unmoved at so alarming a crisis. The knowledge Mr. Hastings had of the sepoys led him to place implicit trust in them on this trying occasion, and his confidence was well rewarded. Their habits of discipline, and their attachment to their officers and the service, proved superior to the ties of caste and of kindred. Not an instance of defection occurred, and the public interests were preserved and restored by their zeal and valour.

Before I make any remarks on the more recent parts of the history of the Bengal native infantry, I must offer some observations on the composition of the army of that Presidency. The cavalry is comparatively young; its formation on the present establishment was only just completed when the Mahratta war of 1803 commenced. Their conduct, however, in the severe service that ensued has justly raised their reputation, and they at present form a most efficient and distinguished branch of the army to which they belong.* The men are rather stouter than those in the same

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striking appearance of hardy veterans. They were all as black as ink, contrasted with the sleek olive skins of our own corps. The sight of that day (he concludes) and the feelings it excited, have never been absent from my mind; to it, and to the affecting orders (which Mr. Hastings issued), I am satisfied I, in a great degree, owe whatever of professional pride and emulation I have since possessed.

* It is only to peruse the despatches of the late Lord Lake to be sensible of the excellence this corps very early obtained. I know few military exploits of cavalry more extraordinary than that which he performed with a column of three regiments of British light dragoons and three of native cavalry, supported by some horse artillery and a small reserve of infantry. With this corps his lordship pursued Jeswunt Row Holkar from Delhi, through the Douab, till he came up with and defeated him at Futtyghur. Lord Lake, in a despatch dated 18th November, in which he gives an account of this operation, observes, 'The troops have daily marched a distance of 23 or 24 miles. During the night and day previous to the action they marched 58 miles, and from the distance to which they pursued the enemy, the space passed over, before they had taken up their ground, must have exceeded 70 miles.'

corps at Madras. The latter are almost all Mahomedans, and a considerable proportion of the Bengal cavalry are of the same race. The fact is, that with the exception of the Mahratta tribe, the Hindoos are not, generally speaking, so much disposed as the Mahomedans to the duties of a trooper; and though the Mahomedans may be more dissipated and less moral in their private conduct than the Hindoos, they are zealous and high-spirited soldiers, and it is excellent policy to have a considerable proportion of them in the service, to which experience has shewn they often become very warmly attached. In the native infantry of Bengal the Hindoos are in the full proportion of three-fourths to the Mahomedans. They consist chiefly of Rajpoots, who are a distinguished race among the Khiteree or military tribe. We may judge of the size of these men when we are told that the standard below which no recruit is taken is five feet six inches.* The great proportion of the grenadiers are six feet and upwards. The Rajpoot is born a soldier. The mother speaks of nothing to her infant but deeds of arms, and every sentiment and action of the future man is marked by the first impressions that he has received. If he tills the ground (which is the common occupation of this class), his sword and shield are placed near the furrow, and moved as his labour advances. The frame of the Rajpoot is almost always improved (even if his pursuits are those of civil life) by martial exercises; he is from habit temperate in his diet, of a generous, though warm temper, and of good moral conduct; he is, when well-treated, obedient, zealous, and faithful. Neither the Hindoo nor the Mahomedan soldier of India can be termed revengeful, though both are prone to extreme violence† in points which they deem their honour, of which they have a very nice

* Before 1796 it was always five feet six inches and a half. By an order in 1809, men may be taken for light infantry corps as low as five feet five inches.

† One instance is given in Captain William's narrative of the action of this violent spirit. In 1772, a sepoy of the now first battalion of the 10th regiment, who had suffered what he supposed an injury, fell out of the ranks when the corps was at exercise, and going up to Captain Ewens, the commanding officer, with recovered arms, as if to make some request, took a deliberate aim and shot him, then patiently awaited the death he had merited. I could give several examples of similar feeling; two will suffice. Captain Crook, formerly of the Madras cavalry, struck a sentry for allowing a bullock that brought water to his tent, to step over the threshold and dirty it. The man took no notice of what had occurred till relieved from his post; he then went to his lines, and a short time afterwards sought his captain, and taking deliberate aim at him, shot him dead upon the spot. He made no attempt to escape. He had avenged his honour from the blows he had received, and met with calmness and fortitude the death that was awarded as the punishment of his crime.

An officer (*still living*) was provoked at some offence the man had committed to strike a Madras native trooper under his command. On the night of the same day, as he was setting with another officer in his tent, the trooper came in, and, taking aim at him, fired; but, owing to the other officer striking his arm, the ball missed. As, however, he fell in the confusion, and the light was extinguished, his companion, who considered him killed, ran to obtain aid, and to seize the murderer,

sense, to be slighted or insulted. The Rajpoots sometimes want energy, but seldom, if ever, courage. It is remarkable in this class, that even when their animal spirits have been subdued so far as to cause a cessation of exertion, they show no fear of death, which they meet in every form it can present itself with surprising fortitude and resignation. Such is the general character of a race of men whose numbers in the army of Bengal amount to between 30,000 and 40,000, and of whom we can recruit in our provinces to any amount. But this instrument of power must be managed with care and wisdom, or that which is our strength may become our danger. It must always be recollected that minds of the caste we have described are alive to every impulse, and, from similarity of feeling, will all vibrate at the same touch. If we desire to preserve their attachment, we must continue to treat them with kindness, liberality, and justice; we must attend to the most trifling of their prejudices, and avoid rash innovations, but above all, those that are calculated to convey to their minds the most distant alarm in points connected with their usages or religion.

A detachment of Bengal native troops shared in the glory acquired by Lord Cornwallis in his war against Tippoo Sultan in 1790 and 1791. From that time till 1803, the only operation of any consequence in which they were engaged was a short campaign, in Rohilcund, in 1794. The rude and untrained, but fierce and hardy enemies against whom Sir R. Abercrombie had to act, were perhaps too much despised, and they took advantage of a confusion caused in his right wing, by the bad behaviour of the English commandant of a small body of half-disciplined cavalry, to make a furious charge, by which a most destructive impression was made on two battalions of sepoys and a regiment of Europeans.

Their desperate career was checked by the fire of the English artillery, by whose good conduct, and the steady valour of the other parts of the line, a victory was ultimately gained. The native troops never, perhaps, displayed more courage than on this trying occasion, and all regretted that the infamous* conduct of one man had caused such serious loss of officers and men in some of the most distinguished corps† of the army.

The campaigns of 1803 and 1804 present a series of actions and sieges, in every one of which the Bengal sepoys showed their accustomed valour. At the battles of

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who had another pistol in his hand. The moment he was out of the tent, he heard the other pistol go off; and, on returning with a guard of men and some lights, he found that the trooper, conceiving that the first shot had taken effect, and that his honour was avenged by the death of the person who had insulted him, had, with the second pistol, shot himself through the head.

* The name of this officer was Ramsay. He escaped, by desertion, from the punishment he had so amply merited.

† The corps on the right of the army was the 13th battalion, which had been eminently distinguished against the French at Cuddalore. It had earned more laurels under its well known commander, Captain Norman Macleod, in the campaigns of Lord Cornwallis. Captain Ramsay's cavalry rode unexpectedly over this fine battalion, and 5,000 Rohillas charged it, before it could recover from the confusion into which it was thrown.

Delhi and Laswarree they were as eminently distinguished as at the sieges of Agra and Deeg; and I may safely assert, that in the only two great reverses which occurred during the war, the retreat of Colonel Monson and the siege of Bhurtpore, the courage, firmness, and attachment of the native troops were more conspicuous than in its most brilliant periods. We know sufficient of the former operations to regret that no full and faithful account of them has yet been published; nor does Captain Williams's narrative supply this blank. I can only express my conviction, founded on a perusal of a private journal kept by an officer of the detachment, that in this disastrous retreat, the native troops (with the exception of a very few, who, after suffering almost unparalleled hardships, were deluded by the offers of the enemy to desert) behaved in the most noble manner. They endured the greatest privations and distresses, during the march from the banks of the Chumbul in Malwa, where the first retrograde movement was made, till their arrival at Agra, a distance of nealy 400 miles. They had at once to combat the elements (for it rained almost incessantly) and the enemy. Scenes of horror* occurred which were hardly ever surpassed; yet, though deprived of regular food and rest and harassed with continued attacks, their spirit was unbroken. They maintained throughout the most severe discipline, and I am assurred that on many occasions, when their European officers, worn down by the climate and fatigue, appeared faint and desponding, the men next them exclaimed 'Keep up your heart, Sir, we will take you in safety to Agra.'† When in square, and sustaining charges from the enemy's horse, it more than once happened, when a musket was fired by a young soldier, that a veteran struck him with the butt end of his firelock, exclaiming, 'Are you mad, to destroy our discipline and make us like the rabble that are attacking us?'

The only serious impatience that the sepoys of this detachment showed was to be led against the enemy; and the manner in which they behaved on all occasions given them of signalizing their valour showed that this feeling had its rise in no vain confidence. The flank companies, under Captain O'Donnell, were very successful in beating up the quarters of a considerable corps of the enemy on the 21st July. On the 24th of August, when all the detachment, which consisted of five battalions and six companies of sepoys, had been sent across the Bannas river, except the 2d battalion of the 2d regiment, and some piquets, Holkar brought up

* Particularly at the Chumbullee Nullah, a rapid torrent, at which the elephants were employed to carry the troops over. The animals becoming wearied or impatient, shook off those on their backs, numbers of whom were drowned. But a still more horrid scene ensued. The fatigued elephants could not bring over the followers. The Bheels, a mountain banditti, encouraged by Holkar, came down upon the unprotected females and children, whom they massacred in the most inhuman manner. It was on this extreme trial, that some of the gallant fellows, who had before suffered every hardship with firmness, gave way to despair. Several of them, maddened with the screams of their wives and children, threw themselves, with their firelocks, into the rapid stream, and perished in a vain attempt to aid those they loved more than life.

† I have been informed of this fact by officers to whom these expressions were used.

his infantry and guns to attack this corps, which not only defended its position, but advanced with the utmost gallantry, and obtained possession of several pieces of the enemy's artillery. It could not, however, be supported by the other parts of the force, who were divided from it by the river, and it was almost annihilated. Those who witnessed the attack which it made upon Holkar's line from the opposite bank of the Bannas speak with admiration of the heroism of the European officers, and of the gallant men whom they led to a momentary but fatal victory. At the close of this affair they saw a jemandar (native lieutenant) retiring towards the river, pursued by five or six men. He held the standard of his battalion in one hand, and a sword, with which he defended himself, in the other. When arrived at the river he seemed to have attained his object of saving the colours of his corps, and, springing with them into the current, sunk to rise no more.

There have been few officers who better understood the character of soldiers than the late Lord Lake; he had early discovered that of the Bengal sepoys; he attended to their prejudices, flattered their pride, and praised their valour. They repaid his consideration of them with gratitude and affection, and during the whole of the late Mahratta war* their zeal and devotion to the public service was increased by the regard and attachment which they entertained for the Commander-in-chief. Sufficient instances of this are recorded by Captain Williams. There is none, however, more remarkable than the conduct he pursued towards the shattered corps of Colonel Monson's detachment. He formed them into a reserve, and promised them every opportunity of signalizing themselves. No confidence was ever better repaid, and throughout the service that ensued these corps were uniformly distinguished.

The conduct of the 2d battallion of the 12th regiment may be taken as an example of the spirit that animated the whole. This corps, which has been before noticed under its first name of 'Gallis,' or the Lal Pultan, had behaved with uncommon valour at the battle of Laswarree, where it had 100 men and three officers killed and wounded. It was associated on that occasion with His Majesty's 76th regiment, and shared in the praise which Lord Lake bestowed on 'the handful of heroes,' as he emphatically termed those whose great exertions decided that battle. It was with Colonel Monson's detachment, and maintained its high character in the disastrous retreat we have alluded to. But all its former deeds were outdone at the siege of Bhurtpore. It appears by a printed memorial which we have before us of its European commanding officer, that on the first storm of that fortress this corps lost 150 officers and men, killed and wounded, and did not retire till the last. On the third attack, when joined with the 1st battalion of the same regiment (amounting together to 800 men), it became the admiration of the whole army. The 2nd battalion of the 12th regiment on this occasion not only drove back the enemy who had made a sally to attack the trenches, but effected a lodgement, and planted its colours on one of the bastions of the fort. Unfortunately this work was cut off by a deep ditch from the body of the place; and after the attack had failed the 12th regiment was ordered to retire, which they did reluctantly, with the loss of seven officers and 350 men, killed and wounded, being nearly half the number they had carried into action.

* The war of 1803-4.

Examples of equal valour might be given from many other corps during the war, and instances of individual valour might be noticed in any number, but more is not necessary to satisfy the reader of the just title of the Bengal sepoys to the high name which they have acquired; their conduct* throughout the arduous service in Nepaul, where they had at once to contend with the natural obstacles of an almost impracticable country, and the desperate valour of a race of hardy mountaineers, has been worthy of their former fame. Since the conclusion of this war a small body of these troops has had an opportunity of exhibiting, in a most distinguished manner, that firmness, courage, and attachment to their officers and the service, which have always characterised this army. We allude to a recent occurrence of a most serious sedition at Bareilly, the capital of Rohilcund. The introduction of a police-tax, intended to provide means for the security of life and property, had spread alarm and discontent among an ignorant population, whose prejudices in favour of their ancient usages are so strong as to lead them to regard any innovation (whatever be its character) with jealousy and indignation. Acting under these feelings, the Rohillas of Bareilly, who are alike remarkable for their strength of body and individual courage, rose in a body to oppose the orders of the civil magistrate. They were influenced by a priest upwards of 90 years of age, who dug his grave, to indicate his resolution to conquer or die, and at whose orders the green flag, or standard of Mahomet, was hoisted, that religious feelings might be excited to aid the efforts which they now proclaimed themselves determined to make to effect the downfall of their European tyrants. What rendered this revolt more alarming, was the knowledge that the cause of the insurgents was popular over the whole country, and a belief that their success would be the signal for a general rise in the neighbouring provinces. All the force that could be collected to suppress this revolt was a detachment of between 300 and 400 sepoys of the 27th regiment of native infantry, and part of a provincial battalion, under Captain Boscawen, with two guns, and a party of about 400 Rohilla horse belonging to a corps lately embodied under Captain Cunningham. The former received, with undismayed courage, the charge of an undisciplined, but furious and desperate rabble, who, encouraged by their numbers, which exceeded 12,000 armed men,

* I know of few instances where more has been required from the zeal and valour of the native troops than in the late campaign against the Goorkhas. The great successes of Major-General Sir D. Ochterlony could only have been gained by the patience and courage of the troops being equal to the skill and decision of their commander, and in the spirited and able operations of Colonel Nicolls, Quarter-master-General of His Majesty's troops in India, against Almorah, where 800 sepoys, aided by a few irregulars, were led against 3,000 gallant mountaineers, who occupied that mountain fortress, and the heights by which it was surrounded. Victory could only have been obtained by every sepoy partaking of the ardour and resolution of his gallant leader. Of their conduct on this occasion we may, indeed, judge by the admiration with which it inspired Colonel Nicolls, who gave vent to his feelings in an order that does honour to his character. Speaking of an attack made by a party of sepoy grenadiers, he observes, 'this was an exploit of which the best troops of any age might justly have been proud."

persevered in the attack till more than 2,000 of them were slain; and the latter, though of the same class and religion as the insurgents, and probably related to many of them by the ties of kindred, proved equally firm as the sepoys to their duty. When their priest advanced and invoked them to join their natural friends, and to range themselves under the standard of their faith, only one man was found wanting in fidelity; he deserted, and was soon afterwards slain by his former comrades, who continued throughout to display prompt obedience, exemplary courage, and unshaken attachment to the officer by whom they were led.

However slight this affair may seem, I do not recollect any occurrence in the history of British India more calculated to show the dependence of our power on the fidelity of our native troops, and the absolute necessity of adopting every measure by which their attachment can be confirmed and approved.

It is by treating the sepoys with kindness and consideration, by stimulating their pride, and by attending, in the most minute manner, to their feelings and prejudices, that we can command, as has been well observed, 'their lives through the medium of their affections;' and so long as we can, by these means, preserve the fidelity and attachment of that proportion of the population of our immense possessions in the East, which we arm to defend the remainder, our Empire may be considered as secure.

Subsequent to the date of this account, the native arms of India have fully maintained the high reputation they had achieved.

During the campaigns against the Mahrattas and Pindaries in 1817 and 1818, that in the territories of Ava, and the siege of Bhurratpore in 1826, these troops evinced all the military qualities of zeal, attachment to their colours, and gallantry for which they had been so long distinguished.

Each Presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the Supreme Government has a general authority over all the Presidencies. The total armed force in British India is about 194,000 men: it may be said to consist of three branches, viz. King's cavalry and infantry; E. I. Company's *European* engineers, artillery, and infantry; and the Company's *Native* artillery, cavalry, and infantry.

The European officers serving in British India are at present in number and distribution as follows:*

* I am indebted for these late returns of the Anglo-Indian army to Colonel Salmond of the Military Department at the India House, who, with the permission of the Court of Directors, has furnished me with much valuable information.

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers		56	37	42	135
Artillery	European Horse	53	35	24	112
	Ditto Foot	68	56	26	150
	Native Horse	12	†	†	12
	Ditto Foot	17	18	18	53
Cavalry.	His Majesty's Regiments	50	29	30	109
	Hon. Company's Regulars	140	107	48	198
	Ditto Irregulars	23	..	3	26
Infantry.	His Majesty's Regiments	223	229	135	587
	Hon. Company's Euro. do.	29	28	33	80
	Do. Native Regulars	1070	692	425	2187
	Do. Irregulars.	35	..	..	35
Staff		94	94	80	188
Medical Department		194	128	72	394
Commissariat ditto		25	25	13	63
Pioneer's Corps*		—	—	—	—
Warrant officers of Artillery		58	57	43	158
Total		2147	1535	992	4487

The total number of European officers it will be observed is 4,487,‡ of whom 752 are in the King's military service. The complement of officers to each regiment is, of *Europeans,* one colonel, one lieut.-colonel, one major, five captains, eight lieutenants, four cornets or ensigns; of *Native* commissioned officers there are a subadar and jemadar with each troop or company. The command of stations is given to brigadiers, of whom there are, in Bengal 16, in Madras 12, and in Bombay 7. The divisional commands, under general officers, are—Bengal, King's, 2; E. I. Company, 5: Madras, King's, 2; E. I. Company, 3: Bombay, King's, 1; E. I. Company, 2. Total, King's, 5; E. I. Company, 10.

The average number of European officers in Bengal, an-

* There is now no separate pioneer corps. The pioneers and sappers and miners are embodied in one corps, called the Engineer Corps.

† Included in European horse artillery.

‡ On the Bengal establishment there are *ninety-nine* corps, namely;—3 of horse artillery, 7 of foot artillery; a corps of engineers equal to 3 others in the strength of its officers; 10 of native cavalry; 2 of European infantry, and 74 of native infantry. In each of these the European commissioned officers consist of 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 major, 5 captains, 8 lieutenants, and 4 second lieutenants, cornets, or ensigns. The total establishment thus, is 1,980; or 99 colonels, the same of lieutenant-colonels, and of majors; 495 captains, 792 lieutenants, 396 ensigns, and about 180 supernumeraries of the junior rank, awaiting the process of absorption.

nually for the last 18 years, has been 1,754; of casualties, 80 per annum, or 1 in 22; of deaths, 54, or 1 in 32; and of retirement, &c. 26, or 1 in 67. In Madras, total number of officers, 1,346; of casualties, 75, or 1 in 18; of deaths, 52, or 1 in 26; and of retirements, &c. 23, or 1 in 58. In Bombay, total number of officers, 624; of casualties, 34, or 1 in 18; of deaths, 26, or 1 in 24; of retirements, &c. 8, or 1 in 78. (For tables of each department of the service, pay, allowances, &c. see *Appendix*.)

The total casualties of commissioned officers in the E. I. Company's army at the three Presidencies, from 1813 to 1833, has been yearly, 169, 154, 159, 143, 150, 203, 198, 167, 194, 164, 168, 260, 233, 244, 233, 163, 193, 204, 244, 227, 228.

In 1835, the number of high ranked officers of the E. I. Company's service attached to the Indian army establishment,

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Lieutenant-Generals	6	10	0	16
Major-Generals	9	9	3	21
Colonels	84	51	34	169
	99	70	37	206
In Europe	55	50	29	134
On service	44	20	8	72

The lieutenant-colonels at the same period amounted to 206, majors 206, captains 1,030, and subalterns 2,472. In the Company's army there is no half-pay list, no sinecures, and no pensioners under 25 years' service; until that period is completed, European commissioned officers are not enabled to retire on the full pay of their rank, which is attained by seniority. A lieutenant-colonel, major, or captain, retires on the half-pay of his rank, if his health requires his relinquishing the service, and a lieutenant having served 13, or an ensign 9 years (including 3 years for a furlough) may retire on ill-health certificates, on the half-pay of their rank. There are military funds to which liberal subscriptions are made by the Company's Government, but the charges are principally borne by the officers themselves. The general servitude of the officers in the Company's army is thus shewn:—

Abstract Statement of the dates of Promotion and periods of Service of the Field Officers, Captains, and Senior Subalterns of the Armies of the three Presidencies, on the 1st January, 1835.

		NATIVE CAVALRY.									NATIVE INFANTRY.									ARTILLERY.									ENGINEERS.								
		Gained their present Rank.							Average period in gaining their present rank.	Average present period of service.	Gained their present Rank.							Average period in gaining their present rank.	Average present period of service.	Gained their present Rank.						Average period in gaining their present rank.	Average present period of service.	Gained their present Rank.						Average period in gaining their present rank.	Average present period of service.				
		Under 10 years.	From 10 to 15 years.	From 15 to 20 years.	From 20 to 25 years.	From 25 to 30 years.	From 30 to 35 years.	From 35 and upwards.			Under 10 years.	From 10 to 15 years.	From 15 to 20 years.	From 20 to 25 years.	From 25 to 30 years.	From 30 to 35 years.	From 35 and upwards.			Under 10 years.	From 10 to 15 years.	From 15 to 20 years.	From 20 to 25 years.	From 25 to 30 years.	From 30 to 35 years.	From 35 and upwards.			Under 10 years.	From 10 to 15 years.	From 15 to 20 years.	From 20 to 25 years.	From 25 to 30 years.	From 30 to 35 years.	From 35 and upwards.				
Colonels	Bengal																																				
	Madras				1				4 20 0	44																												
	Bombay								4 20 0	38																												
Lt.-Colonels	Bengal																																				
	Madras				2				4 23 8	34				6	30	26	19	23 8 8	34								23 8 8	34										
	Bombay				1	1	1		4 23 8	33				6	27	7	6	23 8 8	33								23 8 8	33										
Majors	Bengal																																				
	Madras		1		1				23 8 8	37				1	12	14	1	23 8 8	37								23 8 8	37										
	Bombay				1				23 8 8	37				4	13	11		23 8 8	37								23 8 8	37										
Captains	Bengal	16	20	14					12	20	43	157	170	10				14	28	11	18	32					15	23	10							9	16	
	Madras	11	18	9	2				12	18	80	137	55					11	27	7	19	15					16	18	8	2						8	16	
	Bombay	3	8	4					12	29	58	71	11					10	17		15						10	18	6	4						10	16	
Two Senior Lieutenants in each Regt.*	Bengal									13									13								15									9	
	Madras									13									13								11									20	
	Bombay									13									13								13									10	

* In the Artillery and Engineers there are two Senior Lieutenants in each Battalion.

The officers in the Company's service receive commissions from His Majesty corresponding with those which they receive from the E. I. Company; but westward of the Cape of Good Hope, the Company's officers possess no rank when on service with the King's officers; eastward of it they take precedence according to date and rank of commission. It is but justice to state, that in no part of the globe can there be found a braver or more gentlemanly community than the officers in the Company's service.*

The following table shews the number of European non-commissioned officers and rank and file in India, and the corps and presidencies to which they belong:—

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers		24†	23†	30†	77
Artillery	European Horse	998	458	471	1,927
	Ditto Foot	2,076	1,431	847	4,354
	Native Horse	6	12	..	18
	Ditto Foot	8	2	2	12
Cavalry	His Majesty's Regiments	1,202	659	664	2,525
	Hon. Co.'s ditto	30	18	9	57
Infantry	H. M. European	6,043	5,135	2,701	13,879
	Hon. Co.'s ditto	933	756	782	2,471
	Do. Native Regulars	146	104	11	261
	Do. do. Irregulars	17	..	..	17
Staff		98	87	30	205
Invalids ditto		177	266	32	475
	Total	11,758	8,951	5,649	26,277

* The officers for the E. I. C.'s artillery and engineers are educated at Addiscomb College, near Croydon, in the oriental languages, as well as in military discipline. Each cadet pays 65*l.* the first year, and 50*l.* the second. The cadets are clad in uniform, and get their appointments as soon as qualified. The examination is very strict, and if a lad fails for the engineers or artillery, but evinces general talent and diligence, he is recommended for the infantry. The E. I. Company purchased Addiscomb College and grounds in 1810 for 17,251*l.*; the building cost 82,869*l.*; and the total expenditure from 1810 to 1830 was 366,154*l.*, of which 37,136*l.* was for instructing the cadets in trigonometrical surveys and the art of sapping and mining, &c.; for books, stationery, and mathematical instruments, 18,752*l.*; and the rewards to cadets for industry and talent amounted in four years to 1,600*l.* The total number of cadets educated during the period has been two thousand and ninety; and to the excellence of the establishment, the success and extraordinary formation of the E. I. Company's fine army is pre-eminently due, while the expenditure on each cadet has not averaged 98*l.* (Vide Table of College Expenditure, Appendix.)

† This includes pioneers, as well as sappers and miners, which are now all embodied in one corps, called the Engineer Corps.

The total number of European troops in India (exclusive of commissioned officers) is 30,975, of whom 19,540 belong to His Majesty's cavalry and infantry regiments. The number of King's troops serving in India from 1813 to 1830, has been annually as follows: 21,490, 20,049, 19,828, 20,432, 18,709, 20,110, 17,680, 16,743, 16,290, 15,876, 16,652, 16,395, 16,683, 16,832, 18,249, 19,612, 20,132, 20,292. The cost of these troops (*defrayed by the natives of India*, not by the British public) varied from 800,000*l.* to 1,000,000*l.* a year, independent of charges at home—(viz. 60,000*l.* a year for half pay, &c.) The E. I. Company are authorized by Parliament to raise annually, in the United Kingdom, a certain number of men for the supply of their Indian Army; and in virtue of this authority, they have recruited and sent abroad during the last 11 years 17,000 men, of whom 800 were dispatched to the St. Helena regiments. Their depôt is at Chatham, under the command of a few staff officers; the service is a favourite one with the public, and the finest young men in the country annually engage in it; if steady and intelligent, they obtain rank as warrant officers, deputy commissaries, conductors of stores, &c.

Native commissioned officers in the Indian Army according to the latest returns.

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Engineers		28*	13*	19*	40
Artillery	Horse	6	7	..	13
	Foot	48	22	24	94
	Irregulars	..	..	..	..
Cavalry	Regulars	130	121	53	304
	Irregulars	130	..	10	140
Infantry	Regulars	1,187	684	397	2,268
	Irregulars	165	..	12	177
Native Doctors		219	100	68	387
	Total....	1,913	950	583	3,416

The native officers are in fair proportion to the Europeans. The total number of native officers is 3,416, of whom 387 are native doctors, carefully educated in the Eu-

* This includes pioneers as well as sappers and miners, which are now all embodied in one corps, called the Pioneer Corps.

ropean principles of medicine and chirurgery. The native officers are raised from the ranks according to their merit, and are a most exemplary body of men, grey in years and experience, thay are well calculated to be the intermediate link between the European and the Sepoy soldier. Their steadiness of character and dashing bravery in the field (whether Hindoo or Moslem) has been previously shewn, and it is regretted that they are not enabled to attain a higher rank than subordinate to the youngest European Ensign. Killadars or Commandants of forts should be allotted for the veterans—and every General Officer should have one or two native Aide-de-Camps.

The number of native non-commissioned officers and rank and file in India, and the corps to which they belong, are—

Corps		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers		1,621*	1,068*	809*	3,498
Artillery	European Horse	..	..	100	100
	Ditto Foot	..	..	..	..
	Native Horse	344	478	†	822
	Ditto Foot Regulars	1,917	643	601	3,161
	Ditto Irregulars	..	..	..	..
	Gun Lascars	1,248	532	851	2,731
	Ordnance Drivers	755	637	..	1,392
Cavalry	Regulars	4,980	3,910	1,355	10,245
	Irregulars	3,448	..	836	4,284
Infantry	Regulars	54,201	38,238	18,547	110,986
	Irregulars	9,593	..	912	10,505
Invalids		..	1,878	912	2,790
	Total....	78,107	47,384	24,923	150,514

These troops are composed of Hindoos and Mussulmans, &c. mixed in every regiment, in a greater or less proportion; and in discipline, cleanliness, sobriety, and bravery, they are unsurpassed by any body of men. The native artillery make it a point of honour to be cut down at their guns rather than desert them, and wherever a British officer will lead it has rarely or never been found that his sepoys will not follow. The native cavalry are excellent and fearless riders, superior to Europeans, and good swordsmen; they are exceedingly fond of their horses, and take the best care of them: of the

* This includes pioneers as well as sappers and miners; which are now all embodied in one corps, called the Engineer Corps.

† No separate corps of horse artillery.

whole army it may be observed that no men are more alive to emulation; a medal is as highly prized by a sepoy as by a British soldier, and hundreds of instances of heroism could be related of them which would do honour to Greek or Roman story. The Bengal army is considered to possess the highest caste men, being principally Rajpoots; the Bombay sepoy is more a man of all-work, and the Madrasites are, perhaps, the hardiest race, but all are extremely tenacious of their rights, and adhere punctiliously to the customs which their religion ordains; any violation of either, particularly of the latter, has ever been attended with serious consequences. If the native troops become averse, or unfaithful, to those whose salt they eat, all the European troops which England could raise would be insufficient for the preservation of India.

The distribution of the Indian army according to the latest returns.

BENGAL.

Divisions of the Army.	Europeans.	Natives.	Total.
Presidency (Calcutta)	3,472	14,448	17,912
Dinapore	1,164	4,594	5,758
Fortress of Buxar	51	..	51
Benares	932	4,248	5,180
Fortress of Allahabad	33	1,500	1,533
Cawnpore	2,144	11,837	13,981
Meerut	3,306	16,105	19,411
Sirhind	1,407	6,797	8,204
Sangoor	198	6,258	6,456
Rajpootanah Field Force	192	4,375	4,567
Meywar Do.	84	4,395	4,479
Malwa Do.	281	4,124	4,405
	13,254	68,673	90,937

MADRAS.

Centre Division	2,394	8,981	11,375
Mysore Division	1,766	8,202	9,968
Malabar and Kanara	764	2,312	3,076
Northern Division	510	7,555	8,065
Southern Do.	1,026	5,877	6,903
Ceded Districts	981	1,495	2,476
Hyderabad Subsidiary Force	1,080	5,719	6,799
Nagpore Do.	1,139	3,951	5,090
Tennasserim Provinces	154	766	920
Prince of Wales Island and its Dependencies	87	1,704	1,791
	9,901	46,562	56,493

BOMBAY.*

Divisions of the Army.	Europeans.	Natives.	Total.
Presidency Garrison	978	2,896	3,874
Southern Division	1,080	5,936	7,016
Poonah Do.	3,012	6,559	6,871
Northern Do.	1,157	9,760	10,917
Sattarah Subsidiary	14	745	759
Asseergurh Fortress	11	742	753
	6,252	26,638	30,190

The establishment of King's regiments in India is—Bengal, cavalry, 2; infantry, 8. Madras, cav., 1; inf., 8. Bombay, cav., 1; inf., 4.

Grand total of King's and Company's military force:—

Corps.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total
Engineers†	1,729	1,681	900	4,310
Artillery	7,614	4,288	3,090	14,992
Cavalry	10,133	4,844	3,008	17,985
Infantry	73,642	45,866	23,952	143,460
Medical Department	413	228	140	781
Commissariat	25	25	13	63
Staff	192	181	110	483
Invalids	177	2,144	944	3,265
Total	93,925	59,257	32,157	185,339

The subsidiary Indian forces and contingents, where they are specified in treaties with the E. I. Company, are as follows:—*Subsidiary.* Oude not less than 10,000 men; the Nizam‡ 2 regts. cavalry and 8 bats. of infantry; the Guico-

* European Commissioned Officers on staff, employ, and leave, beyond the limits of this Presidency, not included; European and Native Veterans are included in European and Native Infantry.

† Including sappers and miners, pioneer corps, &c.

‡ The Hydrabad Subsidiary Force, stationed in His Highness the Nizam's dominions, is furnished from the Madras Presidency, and consists of the following troops: one bat. foot artil.; two troops of horse artil.; a park of heavy guns; two reg. native cavalry; one reg. of Europeans, and seven reg. of native infantry.

The Nizam's regular and irregular troops under the command of British officers are under the immediate control of the supreme Government, and consist as follows: four independent companies of artillery, with large establishments of field pieces and heavy guns; one regiment of engineers; eight regiments of regular infantry; one garrison battalion; one invalid

war, 2 regts. of cav. and 4,000 sepoys; Nagpore not stipulated; Mulhar Rao Holkar, the strength judged adequate by

battalion; a body of invalids at Ellichapoor; and five regiments of irregular cavalry.

The payment of the Company's Hydrabad Subsidiary Force is provided for by treaty, and they are paid direct from the British treasuries through the military paymaster. As to the Nizam's troops, they are paid direct by the Nizam's Government, the total expense of which, it is said, amounts to about 42 or 43 lacs per annum.

The Seick Army of the Punjaub was, so late as the commencement of the current century, a mere military confederacy of predatory horse, and that gallant but unfortunate adventurer, George Thomas, considered them the most contemptible troops in Hindostan. The talent of Runjeet Sing has within the last twenty-five years established the military reputation of the Seicks, and this Prince now possesses a regular army, accustomed to war, full of ardour, and jealous of renown; the Seicks possess many qualities which admirably fit them for a military life; they are individually brave and athletic, and are free from those prejudices of caste, which detracts from the military classes of the native soldiery of British India. A Seick will eat of any thing but *beef;* his religion never requires him to undress at his meals, nor does it prescribe fasts, or inculcate any thing to interfere with the duties of a soldier; like the soldier of Europe, the Seicks are however not averse to the use of fermented liquors, and their Sirdars are notoriously addicted to the vice of drunkenness.

The French legion of Cavalry was formed by Monsieur Allard, senior; their uniform is blue with red facings, they are armed with the Polish lance, swords, and pistols; their system is that of the French Lancers. The men of these corps are much attached to General Allard, and these troops only require a few more European Officers to be nearly on a par with our regular Native Cavalry.

The regular infantry, under General Ventura, are also disciplined in the French drill; the words of command are mostly French; they are armed with firelocks and bayonets; these troops are regularly paid and clothed. Runjeet Sing's own personal body guard is a kind of legion of honour; these men are all arrayed in gorgeous dresses and rich armour, and compose the *elite* of the army. Their appearance in their red dresses with heron's plumes, and their martial aspect and blunt demeanor is truly imposing; these men are all tried shots, and at eighty yards can generally hit a small brass pot every time with a matchlock.

The foreigners or Hindoostanies of the Seick army are men from the provinces of British India, and receive a stipulated monthly pay; many of the Seick soldiers receive rations of grain, besides their pay. The avarice of Runjeet Sing has sometimes occasioned mutiny amongst the regular infantry; in one instance the Ghoorka Battalion, on being deprived of a portion of their pay, refused to receive the residue, and as no attention was paid to their complaint, open revolt ensued. Runjeet Sing directed some cavalry to charge the mutineers; the Ghoorka Battalion formed square and beat off the cavalry; the Maha Raja then became alarmed, and retired to the fort of Govind Gharra, when the French officers interposed, and induced the Ghoorkas to retire to their lines.

Monsieur Allard, the General of the regular cavalry, was a distinguished officer in the Imperial army of France, and is a man of high character and

the British Government; Travancore, 3 bats. of inf.; Cochin, 1 bat. do. Mysore and Cutch not specified. *Contingents* of native chiefs. The Nizam, 10 cav. and 12,000 inf.; Guicowar 3,000 cav.; Nagpore, 1,000 do.; Holkar, 3,000 do.; Mysore, 4,000 do. (central India): Joudpore, 1,500 do.; Ghuffoorkan, 600 do.; Bhopaul, 600 cav. and 400 inf.; and Dowlah and Purtumbghur, 50 cav. and 200 inf.; and Dewap, 100 cav. and 100 inf. The following chiefs, not included in the preceding list, are pledged to bring forward troops to the extent of their means when required by the Company's Government:—Rajahs of Bhurtpore and Machery; most of the Boondela chiefs; chiefs of Rajpootana and Malwa not enumerated above, and the Rajah of Sattarah. The military force of the Rajpoot States is 7,676 cav., and 27,788 inf. of which Kotah alone has 20,700 inf., and 4,200 cav. Sindia's army amounts to 10,000 cav., and 20,000 inf.; Holkar's force, 3,456 cav., and 2,000 inf.; the Rajah of Sattarah has 300 cav., and 5,000 infantry; Runjeet Sing's formidable force as given in the Meerut Observer, is detailed in the note.

conciliatory manners; he adopts the Seick costume in allowing his beard to grow, and has married a native woman; this officer wishes to return to France and has been endeavouring to induce the Mala Rajah to allow his younger brother to take charge of his command during his absence.

Monsieur Ventura, General of Infantry, served under Eugene Beauharnois in Napoleon's Russian campaign; he is a brave and intelligent officer, but a violent man.

General Abstract of the Seick Army.—Guns in different forts, 108; Do. Horse Artillery, 58; Do. Foot Artillery, 142; Total guns 308. Mortars, 6; Jamboorans on Camels, 305; Cavalry regular, 5,200; Do. irregular, 43,300; Total Cavalry, 48,500. Infantry regular 6,000; Do. irregular, 17,000; Total Infantry, 23,000. Golundaze, 1,500; Grand Total Army 73,000. The Horse Artillery of Runjeet's Army consist of guns of small calibre, and their field equipment resemble that of our late Foot Batteries; and consequently such Artillery would be utterly unable to cope with our Horse Artillery; still, as these guns are drawn by horses, their fire would be always available, which is not the case with Bullock Artillery.

In 1798 Tippoo Sultan's field army was estimated at 47,470 fighting men; and his revenues at one Crore of Rupees; Runjeet Sing's army amounts to 73,000 men, and his revenues to one Crore and eighty lakhs of rupees.

	In 1813.		In 1830.		Increase since 1813.		Decrease since 1813.	
BENGAL TROOPS.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.
Bengal, Bahar and Cuttack	2,388	21,622	5,440	16,776	3,052	..	..	4,846
Country between Bahar and Oude, incl. Ganges Posts	1,494	5,885	1,362	4,633	..	..	132	1,252
Oude	155	6,309	143	4,809	..	..	12	1,500
Dooab and Territory between Ganges and Jumna	4,521	12,975	4,795	14,124	274	1,149	..	..
Rohilcund	47	1,943	64	3,863	17	1,920	..	..
Acquisitions from Nepaul	..	..	41	3,552	41	3,552	..	..
Country west of the Jumna & north-west of Chumbul	765	19,688	2,233	15,987	1,468	..	..	3,071
Rajpootana	..	..	357	9,102	357	9,102	..	..
Ceded Districts in Nerbudda	..	..	246	6,167	246	6,167	..	..
Bundlecund	144	5,488	97	3,688	..	..	..	471,800
Malwa	..	..	340	4,693	340	4,693	..	..
Assam, Sylhet, Chittagong, and Arracan	18	1,103	84	4,776	66	3,673	..	..
Penang	21	1,620	..	..	..	..	21	1,620
Total	9,553	76,633	15,202	92,170	5,861	30,256	212	14,719
	Exclusive of Troops at Java Fort Marlborough; Engineers, Escorts, Ordnance Drivers, Conductors, Staff, &c.							
	6,150	9,429	399	4,727				
Grand Total	15,703	86,062	15,701	96,897				
MADRAS TROOPS.								
Nizam's Dominions	1,136	8,455	1,347	6,811	211	..	..	1,644
Rajah of Berar's ditto	..	..	816	4,001	816	4,001	..	..
Northern Circars	594	4,753	944	6,714	350	1,961	..	..
Ceded Districts	1,002	7,588	1,069	4,472	67	..	..	3,116
Mysore	3,403	8,891	1,779	5,682	..	..	1,624	3,209
Carnatic	4,961	12,246	3,841	19,571	..	7,325	1,120	..
Portuguese Territories	464	2,820	..	..	..	..	464	2,820
Malabar and Canara	1,130	3,076	959	2,491	..	..	171	585
Travancore	493	2,909	169	2,455	..	..	324	454
Malay Peninsula	37	18	1,141	2,772	1,104	2,754	..	..
Candeish and Surat	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Poona	20	575	..	..	..	..	20	575
S. Mahratta Country	..	..	75	2,456	75	2,456	..	..
Total	13,240	51,331	12,140	57,425	2,623	18,497	3,723	12,403
	Exclusive of Engineers, Conductors of Ordnance, Native Invalids and Staff.							
	350	4,516	841	324				
Grand Total	13,590	55,847	12,981	57,749				
BOMBAY TROOPS.								
Cutch	..	..	116	1,135	116	1,135	..	..
Kattywar	..	..	32	1,208	32	1,208	..	..
Guzerat	1,053	5,890	1,260	7,938	207	2,048	..	..
Candeish and Surat	43	2,205	108	5,042	65	2,837	..	..
Bombay Island	3,383	6,828	1,446	3,573	..	..	1,937	2,955
N. and S. Concan	24	1,197	66	3,997	42	2,800	..	..
Poonah and Sattarah	253	7,836	3,580	7,889	3,327	53	..	..
S. Mahratta Country	..	..	861	1,196	861	1,196	..	..
Malwah	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	4,756	33,956	7,469	32,278	4,650	11,277	1,937	2,955
	Exclusive of Engineers, Conductors, Staff, &c.				Total of three Presidencies.			
	122	35	258	143				
Grand Total	4,878	23,991	7,727	32,421	13,134	60,030	5,872	30,077

MILITARY FORCE IN INDIA, EUROPEAN AND NATIVE, FOR FORTY YEARS.

Year.	FORCE EMPLOYED (King's and Company's).									Relative Proportion per Mille.				Appointments.		King's and Com.'s.	European Commissioned Company's Officers.					
	Bengal.		Madras.		Bombay.		All India.			Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay	India.							Charge, £.		
	Europ.	Natives	Europ.	Natives	Europ.	Natives	Europ.	Natives	Both.	Both.	Both.	Both.	Natives	Cadets.	Assistant Surgeons.	Authorized Establishment.	Retired on Full and Half Pay.	On Furlough Pay.	Retired per Mille.	Retired.	Furlough.
1793	5,440	29,482	9,981	29,914	3,347	10,265	18,768	69,661	88,429	394	451	153	3,711	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1794	6,437	29,635	9,728	30,728	3,237	10,214	18,392	70,597	88,989	394	454	151	3,838	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1795	5,089	29,304	8,921	33,377	2,912	10,274	16,972	72,852	89,724	382	469	145	4,317	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1796	4,842	32,161	10,020	38,474	3,091	13,654	17,956	84,282	102,188	361	474	163	4,691	114	—	—	81	—	—	—	15,641
1797	7,511	32,812	13,274	38,910	3,148	13,345	23,933	86,068	110,001	369	478	151	3,554	132	28	2,142	9	107	4.1	3,129	20,537
1798	7,389	40,105	11,283	36,501	3,491	14,241	22,166	91,147	113,313	419	421	169	4,112	486	28	2,826	22	115	9.5	6,728	23,860
1799	7,220	48,440	11,923	40,683	4,764	16,309	23,907	105,432	129,339	426	405	163	4,406	1,052	39	2,995	39	93	16.9	2,636	21,492
1800	7,719	49,322	10,381	46,050	4,812	19,923	22,832	116,300	138,132	412	462	179	5,049	474	32	3,084	51	95	17.8	17,696	26,162
1801	7,740	51,169	13,013	72,653	5,229	9,012	25,982	132,834	158,816	377	549	072	5,773	43	28	3,084	71	100	23.0	23,452	27,492
1802	7,199	45,237	13,469	67,587	3,682	9,662	24,341	122,505	146,847	357	551	930	5,802	291	31	3,174	78	116	24.5	21,820	32,447
1803	7,627	45,226	12,765	59,513	4,538	10,472	24,930	115,211	140,141	377	515	907	5,622	192	28	3,155	93	157	29.2	29,010	42,175
1804	7,655	71,088	12,225	89,682	3,162	14,901	23,042	165,671	178,713	444	458	101	6,755	357	42	3,278	131	177	38.7	39,969	43,104
1805	7,811	91,257	12,990	68,842	4,090	17,475	24,891	167,674	192,565	462	421	112	6,736	439	51	3,414	145	171	40.4	42,672	52,835
1806	8,357	74,305	11,709	61,299	5,979	20,917	26,145	155,121	181,266	454	399	145	5,914	316	38	3,693	157	238	42.4	46,050	58,919
1807	8,362	72,217	12,567	59,572	5,531	21,791	21,460	153,623	180,083	477	409	151	6,589	281	46	3,967	181	289	46.3	42,053	52,901
1808	9,966	71,469	12,759	58,474	7,073	21,237	29,798	151,179	180,918	419	393	166	5,971	263	28	3,967	220	276	56.4	58,221	65,326
1809	10,132	73,468	13,176	56,766	6,979	23,883	31,287	154,117	185,404	450	377	173	4,990	114	28	3,918	240	283	61.2	60,546	62,124
1810	10,715	77,125	16,244	85,211	4,993	24,925	31,952	187,262	189,214	461	377	158	4,921	194	27	3,951	260	229	65.8	67,994	67,859
1811	11,711	85,312	18,051	85,873	4,717	25,450	34,479	166,665	201,144	492	367	149	4,833	113	14	3,951	268	213	67.5	76,301	60,536
1812	13,232	86,387	15,899	55,463	4,713	25,772	33,835	165,622	199,457	509	347	142	4,261	53	28	3,951	298	237	76.4	77,719	62,781
1813	15,793	86,062	13,590	55,947	4,978	23,991	34,171	165,900	200,071	508	347	144	4,854	52	55	3,935	314	237	79.4	83,374	65,581
1814	12,441	97,331	14,101	62,285	5,106	22,168	31,651	182,787	214,438	513	341	145	5,143	46	48	3,935	323	264	82.0	81,663	63,454
1815	12,617	116,925	13,963	54,741	5,031	23,906	31,611	195,572	227,183	570	302	127	6,196	98	28	6,864	332	327	81.6	79,968	64,915
1816	13,144	117,791	14,051	56,947	5,204	23,746	32,399	198,484	230,883	567	305	125	6,226	98	28	4,120	311	324	82.7	83,514	61,209
1817	12,221	112,310	12,745	58,381	4,690	24,113	31,656	195,131	226,190	560	318	120	6,283	98	28	3,285	315	309	105.9	85,271	65,089
1818	11,582	124,546	13,739	59,778	6,448	26,755	32,161	211,079	243,240	559	302	138	6,563	230	28	3,490	358	295	101.1	85,666	67,885
1819	11,010	121,366	12,027	64,476	6,427	30,097	29,494	216,976	246,472	539	311	148	7,319	499	46	4,598	358	292	78.0	86,160	74,999
1820	11,676	121,238	11,233	77,097	5,636	30,315	28,545	228,650	257,295	516	313	129	7,992	460	62	4,628	373	296	85.0	83,742	83,351
1821	11,725	117,252	11,537	77,181	5,652	33,625	28,914	228,058	256,982	501	315	152	7,880	417	66	4,689	378	301	79.8	83,092	86,203
1822	11,560	117,739	11,747	63,917	5,818	32,519	29,065	216,175	245,240	526	316	156	7,435	258	59	4,689	377	340	80.4	82,012	92,268
1823	13,006	116,228	11,515	59,903	5,912	30,653	30,933	206,799	237,732	546	309	153	6,685	397	48	4,900	392	350	79.8	84,594	101,022
1824	13,565	122,531	11,884	57,562	5,136	32,719	30,585	212,812	243,127	559	285	155	6,919	268	39	5,011	402	351	80.2	82,495	106,181
1825	14,141	141,471	10,856	65,386	5,145	36,068	30,423	243,125	276,548	573	276	150	8,009	367	53	5,191	442	385	85.9	89,800	116,591
1826	13,809	143,752	10,536	72,903	6,217	43,528	30,572	260,278	291,145	541	287	170	8,138	466	74	5,336	447	417	83.4	91,091	129,212
1827	14,338	122,943	11,587	68,260	6,528	42,739	32,673	240,942	273,615	527	292	180	7,474	358	61	5,472	477	420	88.0	96,029	135,205
1828	15,329	120,481	12,384	63,089	6,844	48,561	34,557	231,471	259,029	534	291	183	6,499	351	59	5,438	507	492	98.4	101,674	158,359
1829	17,978	110,564	13,105	59,698	6,703	37,400	35,786	207,662	243,448	519	299	181	5,800	209	57	4,833	507	532	101.9	100,741	161,743
1830	16,701	95,857	12,981	57,749	7,727	32,421	36,409	187,067	223,476	503	316	179	5,110	93	42	4,833	520	598	107.5	107,395	178,605
1831	14,579	82,682	11,782	55,915	8,289	30,498	34,861	169,107	203,968	—	—	—	—	61	49	4,833	543	639	112.3	116,798	179,041
1832	14,294	79,157	11,720	49,796	6,743	29,122	32,762	156,017	188,800	—	—	—	—	121	6	4,833					
1833	13,421	79,567	11,088	48,279	6,535	27,227	31,044	155,074	186,118	—	—	—	—	102	29	4,913					
1834														146	22	4,833					

Note.—This Return includes Provincial Corps; it omits Officers on Furlough to England. In the five years, 1801 until 1805, a portion of the Bombay army is returned as composing the Madras army, because it was employed in the Madras territory.

The expense and strength of the Anglo-Indian army at each Presidency, independent of Prince of Wales' Island, St. Helena, &c., from 1813, was :—

Years.	NUMBERS. Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	EXPENSE. Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
					£.	£.	£.	£.
1813	101,759	69,437	28,869	200,065	3,075,942	3,048,292	1,123,583	7,247,817
1814	99,769	66,389	28,274	194,432	3,293,788	2,942,508	1,144,804	7,291,100
1815	129,536	68,704	28,937	227,177	3,795,483	3,106,202	1,394,362	8,296,047
1816	130,929	70,998	28,950	230,877	3,996,940	3,372,775	1,622,564	8,992,279
1817	124,526	72,126	29,533	226,185	3,858,570	3,189,079	1,545,285	8,592,934
1818	136,122	73,517	33,595	243,234	4,489,034	3,392,819	2,038,513	9,920,366
1819	132,340	76,502	36,524	245,366	4,726,407	3,725,226	1,938,916	10,390,549
1820	132,909	88,430	35,951	257,290	4,321,106	3,734,724	1,792,739	9,848,569
1821	128,983	88,718	39,277	256,978	4,475,387	3,571,142	2,170,047	10,216,576
1822	129,233	77,664	38,337	245,234	4,247,959	3,261,244	1,846,608	9,356,102
1823	129,473	71,423	36,475	237,371	4,226,636	3,109,709	1,781,222	9,117,567
1824	135,735	69,446	37,885	243,066	4,613,104	3,059,041	1,704,653	9,376,798
1825	158,364	76,422	41,514	276,240	6,175,912	3,314,779	1,704,653	14,195,344
1826	157,250	83,829	49,755	290,834	7,113,114	3,275,338	2,335,647	12,824,099
1827	144,656	80,847	49,267	273,370	6,439,617	3,315,929	2,156,862	11,912,399
1828	135,801	75,473	47,745	259,019	3,805,075	2,856,230	1,614,131	8,275,436
1829	126,527	72,803	44,103	243,433	3,581,789	2,661,748	1,539,615	7,793,152
1830	112,583	70,736	40,148	223,461	3,353,667	2,572,830	1,507,313	7,433,820
1831	97,552	67,669	38,769	203,990	3,431,378	2,396,130	1,355,675	7,173,183
1832	93,421	66,518	34,880	188,819	3,653,768	2,332,467	1,268,799	7,254,934
1833	92,989	59,367	33,762	186,118	3,449,685	2,407,880	1,272,431	7,129,996
1834								
1835								
1836								

Note.—From 1828-29 the conversion of the Indian money into sterling in the above account, has been made according to the bullion value of the rupee, which causes an apparent diminution in the military charges, as compared with the charges in the years preceding 1828-29, of 16 per cent.

The annual charge of the army in 1830 was :—*

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
		£.	£.	£.	£.
Hon. Company's Engineers		23,968	24,022	25,883	83,874
Artillery	European Horse	88,058	50,788	60,295	199,141
	Ditto Foot	116,512	84,597	57,234	252,343
	Native Horse	27,987	46,252	——	74,239
	Ditto Foot	43,718	32,812	21,175	97,705
	Golundauze	3,035	——	——	3,035
Cavalry	H. M.'s European Regts.	81,832	40,803	49,953	172,588
	Hon. Co.'s Native Regulars	290,982	297,316	130,565	718,863
	Do. do. do. Irregulars	130,812	——	48,581	179,393
Infantry	H. M.'s European Regts.	240,899	267,159	120,554	628,612
	Hon. Company's ditto	38,018	42,356	47,026	122,400
	Do. Native Regulars	1,433,366	1,146,000	522,989	3,102,355
	Do. do. Irregulars	245,204	12,980	12,528	270,712
Staff		174,794	268,581	145,195	488,490
Medical Department		66,672	35,134	30,952	132,858
Pioneer Corps		17,312	35,393	21,886	74,511
Commissariat Department		382,499	207,346	24,482	614,327
Military Charges not coming under the above heads		933,769	724,816	520,302	2,178,887
Total		4,328,537	3,216,275	1,849,510	9,394,322

* In the army estimates for 1835-36, the charge for, and numbers of,

THE INDIAN MARINE,

although at one time very considerable, is of late dwindling away; it is attached to the Bombay Presidency, and consists of one frigate; four 18 gun ships; six 10 gun corvettes and brigs; 2 armed steamers and some surveying vessels. The number of officers may be stated at 12 captains; 14 commanders; 46 lieutenants; 71 junior officers, and about 500 European seamen, (with a proportion of 4 warrant-officers to each vessel) and a complement of from 600 to 700 native seamen. The latest Parliamentary returns of the annual cost of the Marine Establishment at Bombay is—Marine cruizers, &c. S. R. 11,94,573; marine office establishment, &c. 1,51,105; water, luggage, and ferry-boats, 25,831; dry docks, mooring chains, &c. 80,444; building vessels, purchase of timber, &c., 4,24,741; total, S.R. 18,76,894; or in sterling 211,128*l.* During the European wars, the Indian navy on every occasion where an opportunity offered, have shewn themselves in nowise inferior in naval tactics and bravery to His Majesty's service, while the extensive and valuable surveys which the officers have made of the islands, rivers, gulphs and bays in the Indian and China seas display their scientific acquirements in a pre-eminent degree, and entitle them to the gratitude of every nation trading to the East.

At Calcutta there is a marine establishment which, though not of a warlike nature is nevertheless of the utmost import-

4 regiments of dragoons and 20 battallions of infantry is thus specified:—*Cavalry*, horses, number 2,804; officers, number 188; non-commissioned ditto and trumpeters, number 268; rank and file, 2,700; total of all ranks, 3,156; pay and allowances of ditto, 115,233*l.*; allowances to field officers, &c. 4,836*l.*; agency, 1,409*l.*; clothing, 12,860*l.*; total for 365 days, 134,338*l.* *Infantry*, officers, number 1,020; non-commissioned ditto and drummers, number 1,200; rank and file, number 14,780; of all ranks, 17,000; pay and allowances, 495,283*l.*; allowances to field officers, &c. 7,928*l.*; agency, 5,021*l.*; clothing, 46,499*l.*; total, for 365 days, 554,730*l.* Aggregate annual charges for cavalry and infantry (including 2,835*l.* for depôts at Maidstone and Chatham), 691,904. Of staff officers belonging to the British army, there are in India 24 colonels (charge 16,000*l.*); 48,000 lieutenant-colonels (16,248*l.*); and 48 majors (14,970*l.*)

ance,—I allude to the pilot service, which has no equal in any country in Europe. The service consists of 12 strong, well-fitted and quick-sailing vessels, of 200 tons burthen, schooner-rigged and admirably adapted for withstanding the tempestuous weather from April to October, so frequent off the sand-heads at the mouths of the Ganges and Hooghly, where six or eight of the pilot vessels are constantly stationed, either at anchor or cruising about on the look-out for vessels coming up the Bay of Bengal; the moment a ship is seen, a pilot schooner makes towards her, puts a European pilot and a European leadsman on board, and then resumes her search for other ships approaching the port of Calcutta. (It is projected to have a steam vessel on the station to put the pilots on board.)

The service is one of seniority, from leadsman or volunteers (the lowest) to branch pilot (the highest). The number of Europeans in the pilot service is about 130; they are intelligent, skilful and gentlemanly men, well acquainted, from length of service, with the difficult and dangerous navigation of the Hooghly. There are 12 branch pilots, 24 masters, 24 first mates, 24 second mates, and between 70 and 80 volunteers or leadsmen. The salary of a branch pilot is 70*l.* per month; of a master 27*l.*; of a first mate 15*l.* and of a second mate and volunteer 6*l.* per month. Each ship going up or coming down from Calcutta (a distance of 150 miles) gives a gratuity of about 100 rupees to the pilot and the leadsman, who have charge of the ship. The yearly cost, according to the latest return before Parliament is in S. rupees—pilot schooners and buoy vessel, 3,68,585; steam vessels 87,454; light-houses, &c. 1,08,505; master-attendant and establishment 1,59,148; paymaster and store-keeper and establishment 56,496; moorings, &c. 86,279; offices, establishments, &c. 68,309; buildings and repairs 3,11,304: pensions 80,266; total 13,26,346, or 153,856*l.* sterling. At Madras the marine is trifling, consisting of but 20 Europeans and 265 natives. The charges are for master-attendant, establishments, &c. at

the Presidency, S.R. 1,11,955; out-ports, 35,629; total, S.R. 1,47,584; or in sterling, 16,867*l.*

MEDICAL.

The physical or medical branch of the Anglo-Indian service, as regards the number employed in the army and marine is as follows;—

Numbers and Expense of the Medical Officers (European and Native Doctors) employed at each Presidency, and at Penang and St. Helena, since 1813. N. B. The *Civil* Surgeons in the E. I. Company's Service not included.

Years.	NUMBERS.											EXPENSE.			
	Bengal.		Madras.		Bombay.		Penang, &c.		St. Helena.		Total Europeans and Natives.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay	Total.
	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.					
												£.	£.	£.	£.
1813	156	144	137	176	92	8	4	2	7	1	727	34836	24843	19977	79656
1814	169	150	142	155	92	7	4	2	7	1	729	42766	25316	21120	89202
1815	156	161	143	146	95	7	4	2	6	1	740	8775	29438	21835	60048
1816	174	196	164	161	96	7	4	2	6	1	811	42132	30674	21601	94407
1817	162	188	152	160	94	6	3	2	6	1	774	42494	29993	21391	93878
1818	178	211	151	156	99	6	4	2	6	1	814	41858	29692	22387	93937
1819	165	228	146	154	98	16	4	2	5	1	814	52442	22723	23934	99099
1820	171	214	173	167	108	7	3	2	5	1	851	51954	22976	25331	100261
1821	164	207	174	191	107	8	2	1	7	1	863	57952	26367	22916	107235
1822	169	213	169	199	116	3	4	2	6	1	882	54968	27676	38903	121547
1823	173	208	192	185	114	62	4	2	6	1	942	58085	31234	40938	130257
1824	174	215	196	185	108	62	4	2	6	1	953	57034	29687	29059	115780
1825	183	242	185	206	108	80	4	7	6	1	1022	63443	31314	29059	123816
1826	192	258	179	227	110	86	3	5	6	1	1067	14225	28267	27217	69709
1827	198	241	196	222	122	97	4	5	6	1	1093	67015	29597	26255	122877
1828	239	236	195	269	109	87	3	6	7	1	1152	70442	35074	27518	133034
1829	235	251	210	236	158	114	5	10	7	1	1227	67538	29323	28493	125354
1830	222	235	212	282	156	136	5	10	7	1	1266	66772	35134	30952	132858
1831	234	287	140	231	119	122									
1832	244	306			118	145									
1833	256	306	149	223	125	147									
1834															
1835															

The range of professional talent is of the highest, and the valuable additions which the surgeons in the E. I. Company's service have made to our heretofore limited knowledge of the botany, zoology, geology, meteorology, &c. of the East, entitle them to the most honoured considerations. The medical so-

cieties and museums which have been established at each Presidency, have been the means of concentrating in a focus the invaluable local information which the different members of the service have an opportunity, while serving at distant stations, of acquiring: and the native medical schools in which the Hindoo and Mussulman youths are taught anatomy, the practice of physic, surgery and chemistry, either to enable them to serve as doctors and assistant surgeons in the Company's army, or as private practitioners, are as creditable to the munificence of the Company, as to the talent and zeal which presides over them.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

The British clerical establishment in India was stated before Parliament, in 1832, (by Mr. Lushington) to be adequate to its purposes; the European chaplains in 1817, were in number, 39; in 1827, 51, and in 1831, they were increased to 76, of whom 38 were at Bengal, 23 at Madras, and 15 at Bombay. The clergy are under the charge of Diocesans at each Presidency. The total charge of the establishment in 1827, was 66,943*l.* sterling. A late return gives the number of chaplains, stations, and ecclesiastical charges, as follows:

Presidency.	Stations.	Chaplains.	Charge.
Bengal	18	38	£40,625
Madras	18	23	20,199
Bombay	12	15	6,119

In 1830-31, the salaries and allowances paid by the Indian Government, at each Presidency, for the support of the clergy and places of worship, was—Bengal Episcopal, sa. rs. 425,876; Scotch Church, 20,451; Roman Catholic, 4,000; total, 450,327. Madras Episcopal, Mad. rs. 206,976; Scotch Church, 11,760; Roman Catholic, 5,346: total, 224,082. Bombay Episcopal, Bomb. rs. 178,578; Scotch Church, 20,862: Roman Catholic, 820: total, 200,280. Grand total, 874,669 rupees, or about 85,000*l.* (See Chapter on *Religion*).

Retiring Funds.—The military, medical and civil services of the East India Company have established retiring funds,

the principles on which they are founded may be seen in the following sketch of the plan of the Madras Army Retiring Fund:—

According to the London bills of mortality, the average duration of life at the age of 45 is about 17¾ years, and the value of an annuity of 1*l.* for that number of years is 10*l.* 15*s.*, the rate of interest being 6 per cent.; the value of an annuity of 250*l.* for a man, at the age of 45, is, therefore, 26,825 sicca rupees, taking the sicca rupee at 2*s.*, or Madras rupees 28,568. The sum required, therefore, for eight annuities is 228,544 rupees. Suppose each officer, on receiving the annuity, pay a minimum, including his subscription of 10,000 rupees, we may deduct 80,000 rs.; leaving a balance of 148,544 rs. to be raised, which may be done agreeably to the following scale:—15 senior Lieut.-Cols. at 20 rupees each, 300 rs.; 24 next ditto at 35 rs. each, 875 rs.; 30 junior ditto at 45 rs. each, 1,350 rs.; 35 senior Majors at 50 rs. each, 1,750 rs.; 35 jun. ditto at 45 rs. each, 1,575 rs.; 350 Captains at 16 rs. each, 5,600 rs.; 564 Lieutenants at 8 rs. each, 4,512 rs.; 280 Ensigns at 4 rs. each, 1,120 rs.:—total, 17,082 rs.—For 12 months, 204,984 rs. Deduct on account of absentees in Europe who pay only half subscriptions, 25,000 rs.; ditto for secretary and writer, 2,400 rs.; sum required 148,544 rs.—leaving a surplus of 29,400 rs. to meet deficiencies and the gradual diminution of the minimum.

In the formation of the annexed outline plan for a Retiring Fund, the following principles have been adopted:—

1. The principle of rank in preference to that of service.

2. The principle of annuity—the amount of annuity, it is proposed, be 250*l.* per annum, subject to the payment of a minimum of Madras rupees 10,000, including subscriptions.

3. The annuity to be confined to colonels, lieut.-colonels, and senior majors, in cavalry and infantry corps, in order to prevent supercession. In the artillery and engineers it is proposed that the annuity descend for acceptance to the junior ranks, as the same reason does not apply. When the whole number of annuities are not accepted in one year, those which are declined are to be added to those for distribution in the following year.

4. Lieut.-colonels or senior majors may retire from the service in anticipation of the annuity, retaining the right of accepting it, when it comes to their turn, continuing, however, their subscriptions.

The rates of subscription are calculated on the supposition that the whole army will subscribe to the fund; but it will be observed that by the scheme there is a surplus of rupees (29,000) to meet deficiencies, which may, upon the first establishment of the fund, be apprehended. If the fund be supported by the whole army there can be no doubt that, in the course of a few years, the rates of subscription may be reduced, or the amount or number of annuities be increased.

It is proposed that all subscribers bind themselves to continue their subscriptions whilst on the effective strength of the army; and in the event of the fund being established, the Committee hope, as in the case of the annuity branch of the Medical Fund, that the Court of Directors will compel all officers hereafter entering the service to subscribe.

The Committee propose that eight annuities be yearly distributed, as follows:—one to the cavalry, one to the artillery and engineers, and six to the infantry. But as the infantry will, by this arrangement, lose a fractional advantage to which they are entitled, the loss will be provided for when the details of the plan are matured. The differences of pay and allowances between ensign and lieutenant, for one month, is equal to 11 months' subscription as ensign; between lieutenant and captain 18½ months, as lieutenant; and between captain and major, 16½ months, as captain.

INDIAN PATRONAGE.

The Directors of the East India Company have the nomination of Writers, Cadets, and Assistant Surgeons for the Indian service, this with a salary of 300*l.* a year is the sole reward which they receive for their services, for by their oath they are bound to accept no pecuniary consideration for any appointment whatever. The number of writers, cadets, and assistant surgeons required for the year being made known, the number is divided into 30 shares, of which the Chairman and Deputy Chairman have each two, the President of the Board of Control two, and each Director one. His Majesty's Ministers, through the Board of Control, have the appointment of judges, bishops, officers of the King's army, and a negative on the Court of Directors' nomination of the Governor General, Governors, Commanders in Chief, and members of council.

Appointments of Cadets and Assistant-Surgeons in each year, from 1796.

Years.	CADETS, including Seminary Appointments.				Asst. Surgns.	Total.	CASUALTIES amongst the European Commissioned Officers of the Company's Army.			
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay	Total.			Bengal.	Madras	Bombay	Total.
1796	33	55	26	114	32	146				
1797	44	54	34	132	29	161				
1798	183	167	58	408	36	444				
1799	116	75	30	219	27	246				
1800	164	201	109	474	27	501				
1801	13	18	12	43	28	71				
1802	65	190	36	291	31	322				
1803	196	125	171	492	28	529				
1804	198	138	21	357	42	399				
1805	198	230	11	439	51	490	No Returns prepared.			
1806	110	211	19	340	36	376				
1807	140	113	28	281	48	329				
1808	152	55	56	263	24	287				
1809	59	36	19	114	28	142				
1810	81	74	39	194	27	221				
1811	44	42	27	113	14	127				
1812	18	28	7	53	28	81				
1813	19	19	14	52	55	107	53	82	34	169
1814	36	13	7	56	40	96	71	53	30	154
1815	10	12	4	26	33	59	80	57	22	159
1816	12	8	5	25	38	63	63	62	18	143
1817	35	32	19	86	29	115	46	80	24	150
1818	122	85	83	290	33	323	92	89	22	203
1819	178	145	86	409	46	455	78	81	39	198
1820	142	234	84	460	62	522	78	50	39	167
1821	131	170	116	417	66	483	71	78	45	194
1822	115	107	36	258	59	317	75	59	30	164
1823	95	56	56	207	48	255	174	67	27	168
1824	206	99	63	368	39	407	196	121	43	260
1825	209	121	37	367	53	420	07	94	32	233
1826	187	210	69	466	74	540	00	95	49	244
1827	126	136	96	358	61	419	92	89	52	233
1828	188	89	77	354	59	413	87	41	35	163
1829	117	53	39	209	57	266	93	63	37	193
1830	42	35	16	93	42	135	86	87	31	204
1831	26	24	11	61	49	110	126	117	41	284
1832	5	11	5	21	6	27	116	91	58	265
1833	34	49	19	102	29	121	153	126	31	310
1834	52	73	21	146	22	136				
1835										
1836										

Number of Civil Servants appointed to the Bengal Civil Service since 1790, and the Deaths and Retirements incident to the same.*

Years.	No. in the Service.	Apps. each Year.	Total.	Deaths.	Retirs.	Years.	No. in the Service.	Apps. each Year.	Total.	Deaths.	Retirs.
1790	..	19	19	..	..	1813	379	21	400	8	1
1791	19	19	38	..	..	1814	391	30	421	4	1
1792	38	19	57	..	..	1815	416	9	425	10	6
1793	57	12	69	..	..	1816	409	26	425	5	6
1794	68	27	95	1	1	1817	414	18	432	7	8
1795	93	30	123	.	1	1818	417	17	434	16	5
1796	122	24	146	1	..	1819	413	19	432	10	10
1797	145	20	165	..	2	1820	412	17	429	13	6
1798	163	32	195	..	2	1821	410	17	427	12	5
1799	193	17	210	3	1	1822	410	13	423	10	5
1800	206	21	227	3	..	1823	418	13	431	9	7
1801	224	20	244	4	3	1824	415	22	437	13	1
1802	237	24	261	5	2	1825	423	21	444	12	..
1803	254	26	280	5	2	1826	432	33	465	9	..
1804	273	17	290	3	3	1827	456	50	506	12	1
1805	284	32	316	5	7	1828	493	41	534	11	2
1806	304	16	320	3	1	1829	521	44	565	8	1
1807	316	17	333	7	2	1830	556	13	569	10	..
1808	324	20	344	9	1	1831*		23		22	8
1809	334	13	347	5	2	1832		12		9	4
1810	340	17	357	5	..	1833		9		19	5
1811	352	24	376	6	2	1834		8		9	
1812	368	21	389	5	5						

* This table from 1790 to 1830 was, I believe, prepared in India, by or for the Bengal Finance Committee; I have compared some of the latter years with the College books at the India House and find a discrepancy as to the number of appointments: the last four years have been furnished me by the authority of the Court of Directors.

The patronage of *appointment* rests only with the home authorities, that of *promotion* is thus managed. A writer on proving his qualifications in India is allowed to fix on any branch of the service, (revenue, judicial, or political), and the principle of succession to office is regulated partly by seniority, and partly by merit, blended so well together, as effectually to destroy favouritism, while a succession of offices is still left open for the encouragement of talent and industry. An Act of Parliament, providing that all situations exceeding in total value 500*l.* per annum, must be held by a civil servant of three years residence in India; ditto, exceeding 1,500*l.* a year, by one of six years standing; ditto, 3,000*l.* by one of nine years, and of 4,000*l.* and upwards by a servant of twelve years sojourn in the East. Thus, for vacancies under each classification, there are a certain number of candidates of the

required local experience when the selection depends on the government, but every care is taken to make merit the sole ground for eligibility and success. The salaries of the whole Civil Service are now undergoing reduction and modifications, which it is thought will tend to stimulate the faculties of the functionaries employed.

The Company's civil servants are educated at the E. I. College of Haileybury, where each student must enter before he is 20 years of age, and pay 105*l.* per annum towards defraying the expensive and elaborate education which he receives in every essential branch of oriental and western literature, philology and science, under the superintendance of a College Council, and the most learned professors in England. The test of examinations for a writership is severe. The nominations during the last five years from the College consisted of sons of noblemen three; of baronets eight; of clergymen fourteen; of East India Directors eight; of Company's civil servants thirty; of ditto, military ditto, twenty-two; of ditto, naval ditto, forty-two; of His Majesty's military and naval officers, twenty-seven; and of merchants, bankers, and private gentlemen, one hundred and ten. The *net* expenditure of the College at Haileybury, from 1805 to 1830, was 363,427*l.*, of which 96,359*l.* was for the building; 33,553*l.* for books, and philosophical instruments, &c.; the salaries paid to professors, amount to 220,730*l.* and the number of students educated was 1,978. (Vide Appendix for a more detailed account of the disbursements of the College.)

The manner in which the patronage exercised in India is controlled by the Home Government of the East India Company, was ably explained by the talented Secretary to the Hon. E. I. Company, in his lucid evidence before the Select Committees of Parliament, relative to Indian affairs.

'The records, as now sent home from India, contain the most minute description of the services, the character, and conduct of every individual in the civil establishment. Perhaps I may exemplify it by stating, that when members of council for India are appointed by the Court of Directors, a list of civil servants within a given period of the standing of those ser-

vants, from whence it is proposed to select members of council, is laid before the Court of Directors, which list contains a complete statement of the whole course of a servant's progress, from his arrival in India as a writer, to the date at which it is proposed to appoint him to a seat in council. So it is with regard to every other civil servant in the establishment; and, if it would not be troubling the Committee too much, I will take the liberty of reading a letter, which has particular reference to the course now observed with regard to the patronage in India, and the scrutiny which is exercised by the authorities here, or rather the knowledge which they possess of the course pursued by the government abroad. It is an extract of a letter from the chairman and deputy of the Court of Directors to Lord Ellenborough, dated November 1829: 'The Legislature has placed the local governments in subordination to the government at home, it has exacted from them obedience to the orders issued by the constituted authorities in this country. The Legislature has provided, that all the Company's servants in India, civil and military, under the rank of Governor-General and Governor, shall, in the first instance, receive their appointments from the Court of Directors; that the members of council shall, excepting in particular cases, be nominated by the Court, and that the Governor-General and Governors shall likewise be appointed by the Court, with the approbation of the King. The legislature has empowered the Court of Directors to recall the Governor-General and other Governors, and to remove from office, or dismiss from their service, any of their servants, civil or military; and as a security against excessive lenity or undue indulgence on the part of the Court, it has conferred upon the Crown the power, under His Majesty's sign manual, countersigned by the President of the Board of Commissioners, of vacating appointments and commissions, and of recalling any of the Company's servants, civil or military, from the Governor-General downward. By these provisions, the fortune of every servant of the Company in India is made dependant on the home authorities; and as long as the powers with which the latter are thus entrusted continue to be properly and seasonably exercised, there appears to us to be little ground for apprehension that the Indian functionaries will forget they are accountable agents, and still less that this forgetfulness will be generated by so inadequate a cause as an occasional delay here, not in issuing necessary instructions, nor in replying to special references, but in reviewing their past proceedings.

'The Legislature having thus provided sufficient sureties against the independence and irresponsibility of the governments in India, has with a just appreciation of the distance and all the extraordinary circumstances attending the connexion between the two countries, not only left to the governments there the distribution and disposal of all the Company's establishments, civil and military, and the power of suspending from the

service such individuals as may be guilty of misconduct, but has delegated to them powers of legislation, and to the Governor-General, individually and temporally, some of the most important rights of sovereignty, such as declaring war, making peace, and concluding treaties with foreign states; and while it has enacted, that the wilful disobeying, or the wilfully omitting, forbearing or neglecting to execute the orders of the Court of Directors by the local functionaries, shall be deemed a misdemeanor at law, and made it punishable as such, the enactment is qualified with the exception of cases of necessity, the burthen of the proof of which necessity lies on the party so disobeying, &c.

'Nor do the powers thus conferred (large as they are) exceed the exigencies of the case. It would be superfluous in addressing your Lordship to enlarge on the magnitude of the trust reposed in the local governments, and the difficulties with which it is encompassed, difficulties so many and so great, as to be almost insuperable, if experience had not shown that to a great extent at least they may be surmounted. The imposition of the various checks with which the system abounds presupposes the grant of a liberal confidence in those to whom power is delegated. The individuals selected for members of the different councils of government are usually men of mature experience, who have distinguished themselves in the several gradations of the service. At the head of the two subordinate governments are generally placed persons who have recommended themselves to the home authorities by their eminent attainments, extensive local knowledge, tried habits of business, and useful services in India, or persons sent from this country, who, without exactly the same recommendations, are on other grounds supposed to possess equal qualifications. The office of Governor-General has usually been filled by noblemen of elevated rank and character, who in some instances have held high offices of state in England, and who in going to India with the qualities of British statesmen, have there the means of acquiring a personal knowledge of the country and the people whom they are sent to govern; and the allowances of the Governor-General, other governors and members, as well of the supreme as of the subordinate governments, are fixed on a more liberal scale, suitable not to the character of mere executive agents, but to the greatness of discretionary trusts and the weight of their responsibility.

'It is by no means our intention, in submitting the foregoing considerations, to apologize for any want of promptitude or regularity on the part of the local governments in reporting their proceedings to the Court, or to absolve the Court from the obligation of carefully revising those proceedings, and communicating their sentiments thereupon within a reasonable time, and above all of enforcing strict obedience to their orders where no sufficient reason is given for suspending or modifying them: all that we mean to infer is, that when the relative characters, position and powers of

the constituted authorities at home and abroad are duly considered, a minute interference in the details of Indian administration was not contemplated by the Legislature, and that as long as a general supervision is watchfully exercised, and no proceedings of importance are kept back from observation, overlooked, or neglected, its intentions are not necessarily defeated by an arrear of correspondence on matters of minor moment.

'It is doubtless indispensible that the home authorities shall exercise the utmost caution and circumspection in the selection of their Indian governors, and in the choice of fit persons for the councils of government; that they shall constantly and vigilantly inspect the proceedings of those governments, as they may affect the interests of the State as well as the characters and prospects of individuals: that commendation and censure be impartially distributed, and that in cases of manifest incompetence or gross misconduct, the extreme measure of removal from office be resorted to. It is incumbent on them to take care that, in our political relations with foreign powers, justice and moderation are uniformly observed, that the discipline and general efficiency of the army are maintained, and that in the business of internal administration, the welfare of the native population is sedulously consulted. It is obligatory on them narrowly to scrutinize and control the public expenditure, to keep a watchful eye over all their servants, to see that distinguished merit is adequately encouraged and rewarded, that the undeserving are not promoted by favour, and that evil doers are not improperly shielded from the punishment due to delinquency. It is also within their province to convey to the local governments such instructions as may from time to time be deemed expedient with a view to these or other objects, and to enforce obedience to their orders when transgressed or imperfectly executed without valid reason.'

Your answer went in the first instance to show the existence of a control and vigilant scrutiny exercised by the home authorities over the patronage of the Governor-General in India, and which control you consider would cease to exist in the event of the substitution of some other public organ for the Court of Directors at home; and you have instanced this by the care that is taken to ascertain the character and qualifications of individuals selected to be members of councils in India; are not the members of council nominated at present by the Court of Directors, and not by the Governor-General?—What I wished to exemplify to the Committee was, the minute knowledge that the Court of Directors possessed of all nominations made to India, of the progress of their servants, and of their appointment from one station to another, and of the duties they performed. At the present moment there is, I conceive, a check both on the part of the Board of Control and on the part of the Court of Directors in the exercise by the Governor-General of his patronage, which patronage is made by selecting civil servants according to their seniority, as prescribed by the

Act of Parliament, unless there is any reason for a different course of proceeding; and whilst it is true that the Governor-General selects from the military service military men for civil stations, it is a practice objected to, and for which he is obliged to assign reasons. Unless some strict provision or check shall exist in future as now does exist, the Governor-General will of course be at liberty to exercise his patronage as he might see fit, without any control.

In point of fact, is it your belief that any real control is exercised over the appointments in India of the commissioners, judges of circuit, members of the courts of revenue, and of other Boards; in short, of the detail of the patronage in that country?—I conceive that the patronage in that country is carried on as prescribed in the manner I have already stated, by the regulations, and if there were not the check that now exists, which I conceive the Governor-General is perfectly aware of, he might exercise it to a large and imperious extent.'

The Government of the Anglo-Indian Empire is one founded on an opinion arising out of our moral rectitude as well as physical force, and whatever weakens it, tends therefore to the diminution of our power in the East; in the preceding sketch may be perceived, the existence of present benefit, as well as future advantages, and the positive danger to both countries by rash and crude plans of fancied perfection being urged for adoption at this eventful crisis. Unlike European Governments, the East India Company's administration has been in general in advance of the intelligence of the people; the increasing vigilant control of Parliament, the fast-growing influence of public opinion in England and in India, and the omnipotence of the press in both countries, will from time to time suggest, and enable the authorities to carry into effect, such improvements as may be safely, and with a prospect of permanent benefit enacted, remembering always that governments are not like a forge nail, struck out at a single heat of the iron, but like the oak tree, which grows from year to year, while the more extended its age, the deeper and deeper become its roots. To the corporation of the East India Company, we are indebted for the acquisition and present progressive state of India, to that Corporation the good and the wise still look for the amelioration of Hindostan, and the preservation of the ministerial balance of power in Britain.

Revenues and Charges of British India for 1831-32.—(Latest Account.*)

GROSS REVENUE.

Items.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total in sterling money.
	Sa. Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	£.
Land-Tax	68,588,291	30,519,174	13,394,747	10,750,218
Custom, town and transit dues	6,527,911	4,853,686	4,014,678	1,388,099
Salt sale tax	19,158,084	3,789,138	202,303	2,314,982
Opium sale	12,256,637	..	2,169,063	1,442,570
Stamp duties	2,466,864	417,863	398,279	328,300
Post office, ditto	634,771	279,020	121,220	103,501
Mint duties	426,354	12,879	165,948	60,518
Marine and pilotage	282,538	66,259	110,951	45,974
Tobacco sale	..	630,489	..	63,048
House-tax (Madras & Bombay)	284,256	110,991	..	58,631
Excise, ditto	191,067		96,168	70,469
Judicial fees and fine	468,777	139,745	..	96,242
Tolls on ferries	962,424	..	1,471,525	764,759
Sayer and abkaree	4,153,899	2,022,176	17,872	44,004
Civil, miscellaneous	385,006	7,166	..	138,963
Revenue, ditto	1,205,735	183,904	..	116,836
Moturpha or profession tax	..	1,168,308	..	239,347
Ceded territory on Nerbuddah	2,393,478	..	..	87,266
Do. by the Burmese	872,660	..	..	77,743
Nagpore subsidy	777,437	..	..	78,938
Nizam's and Rajpoot tribute	789,388	..	..	24,881
Bhurtpore on account of war	248,811	..	..	342,776
Mysore, Travancore and Cochin subsidies	..	3,427,769	..	13,332
Ditto, from Cutch government	..	..	133,333	37,561
Penang, Mal. and Sincapore	375,615	..	..	
Total in Rupees	118,449,994	47,628,276	22,326,057	18,677,952

CHARGES (in India only).

Items.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total in sterling money.
	Sa. Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	£.
Collecting land-tax sayer and abkaree	8,706,175	4,472,283	2,263,095	1,544,155
Do. customs	1,144,055	109,721	254,166	180,794
Do. salt (including French and Danish supplies	4,887,186	741,604	..	562,879
Opium	2,790,018	..	26,537	281,655
Stamp duties	474,982	80,306	154,835	71,012
Post office, ditto	781,156	259,429	136,660	117,724
Mint, ditto	280,598	116,687	129,171	52,645
Marine and pilot establishment	1,376,032	162,302	1,485,711	302,404
Tobacco, ditto	..	233,092	..	23,093
Military charges	33,500,430	25,275,721	14,246,512	7,302,266
Do. buildings	813,352	136,570	191,430	114,135
Civil and political establishments	7,981,801	2,953,754	3,022,058	1,395,761
Sadder, provincial and Zillah courts	7,623,026	2,013,448	1,799,595	1,143,606
King's supreme court, &c.	793,736	486,278	449,407	172,942
Provincial police	2,023,773	651,273	..	267,504
Buildings, roads, &c.	1,135,529	196,407	248,823	149,875
Nerbuddah territory charges	741,754	..	..	74,175
Burmese ceded, ditto	870,523	..	..	87,053
Penang, Mal. and Sincapore	612,946	..	..	61,294
Interest on debt	17,825,682	2,015,523	234,941	2,007,614
Pensions, assignments, and allows.	5,706,742	6,310,310	4,697,914	1,671,406
Total charges	10,0068,876	46,424,708	29,310,855	17,583,132
Surplus revenues	18,381,118	1,203,568	7,014,798	
Deficient, ditto				

* I have prepared this Table from the accounts laid before Parliament in May, 1834, in order shew, in a connected view, the sources of Revenue in British India, and the mode in which it is expended. The Table being prepared from different returns, I should state that the Bengal Revenue is in Sicca Rupees, being in the proportion of 100 to 106½ of the Madras and Bombay rupees: in the total column I have converted the whole into sterling at 2-7 rupees, which is nearly the bullion value and rate of exchange of the coin.

CHAPTER V.

THE FINANCIAL AND MONETARY SYSTEM OF BRITISH INDIA; PRODUCE FOR SEVERAL YEARS OF THE OPIUM, SALT, AND LAND REVENUE; DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF LAND REVENUE, AND AGGREGATE TAXATION; EXPENDITURE AND DEBT OF THE THREE PRESIDENCIES, WITH THE SURPLUS, OR DEFICIT REVENUE OF EACH SINCE 1814; THE BANK OF BENGAL; INDIAN DEBT; PROPORTION HELD BY EUROPEANS AND NATIVES, &c.

THE prosperity of a nation is materially dependant on a just system of finance, the leading principles of which are, that every individual shall contribute to the maintenance of a Government in proportion to the property he possesses, in order to protect him from domestic tyranny or foreign aggression, and that every individual contributing a quota shall have a voice in regulating its disbursement. As the comparative advantages of direct and indirect taxation are now deservedly engrossing a large share of public attention, and the financial system of Great Britain and of our possessions in India is materially different, it will be necessary to enter into some detail, in order that the Indian mode of finance may be more thoroughly understood and appreciated.

The history of most ancient states show that direct taxation, or in other words, taxation on property has been the foundation and main stay of their revenue systems; in England the principle has been progressively departed from since the reign of William III. until now, out of nearly 50,000,000*l.* taxes levied annually in the United Kingdom, almost 40,000,000*l.** are raised on the consumption of the necessaries and comforts of life. In India the ancient system of

* The volume which I have written on the 'Taxation of the British Empire' will show the effects of high taxes on articles of general consumption; especially in connection with the contraction of the currency, which took place in 1819, a measure ruinous to the prosperity of England.

direct taxation has not been changed, the land continuing, as it has been from time immemorial, the grand fund of supply to the Government, as will be seen by the proportions of the Indian revenue derived from different sources in 1831-32, the latest year in which the returns have been laid before Parliament complete :—

DIRECT TAXATION.		INDIRECT TAXATION.	
Land Revenue	£10,750,218	Salt Sale and Licenses	£2,314,982
House Tax	40,000	Customs (Sea and Land)	1,380,099
Tax on Professions	116,830	Opium	1,442,570
Tolls on Ferries	96,242	Post Office	103,561
Territories on Nerbudda	239,347	Tobacco	63,048
Burmese Cessions	87,266	Mint Receipts	60,518
Mysore, Travancore, and Cochin	342,776	Stamps	328,300
Nagpore Subsidiary	77,743	Judicial Fees and Fines	70,469
Bhurtpore	24,881	Sayer and Abkaree	764,759
Nizams and Rajpoot Tribute	78,938	Marine and Pilotage	45,974
Dutch Subsidiary	43,332	Excise (in Calcutta)	19,106
Miscellaneous	17,996		
	£11,885,569		£6,593,326

Now, in making this division, I have given in the second column several items, which will detract from its amount when examined. The tax levied upon opium is paid indirectly, it is true, by the Chinamen who consume it in the celestial empire, but in reality the tax falls on the land which grows the poppy, for were there no tax levied, the amount now paid by the Chinamen would go into the pockets of the Hindoo landed proprietors, thus we reduce the 6,600,000*l.* to 5,200,000*l.*; and when we consider how nearly salt stamps, judicial, mint, and post-office receipts are direct taxes, the large proportion of the latter will be apparent, and the more so when we view the gross revenues of the Three Presidencies during the 15 years, ending 1828-29, which were as follow :—

Bengal, £196,121,983; Madras, £82,042,967; Bombay, £30,986,970.—Total, £309,151,920.

LAND REVENUE OF INDIA.

The land-tax of British India is entitled to priority of consideration, no less on account of its financial importance as to amount, than of its influence over the rights and in-

terests of the native inhabitants of the country, and over the general prosperity of the empire. There are three different modes of assessing land in India, and as each has its advocates and are essentially different in operation, the fairest plan which the Author can adopt in laying a detail of them before the public, will be to give a very brief abstract of the evidence on the subject as laid before Parliament, during the recent discussion on the renewal of the E. I. Company's Charter; thus no favour to any system will be shewn, and the public will be better enabled to form a comparative judgment on their respective merits.*

PRINCIPLES OF THE LAND-TAX.—Three different modes of assessing the land-tax prevail in British India—1st. a *perpetual* settlement with the proprietors of land;—2nd. a *temporary* settlement with the heads of villages or townships; and 3rd. a definite settlement with each individual occupant or cultivator of the soil (1832, C. P. 2.†), but the acknowledged basis of every land revenue settlement in India, is the right of a Government to a certain share of the *gross* produce of every inch of cultivated land; the share may be alienated entirely or partially, or it may be diminished by grants from Government: it may be commuted for a money payment under engagements more or less extended for a series of years, or even for perpetuity, but the ground works of the land revenue in India, is the right of Government to a share of the *gross* produce of all cultivation (1832, C. P. 29). Land is assessed with reference to the payments of former years, and to the actual state of the cultivation, and of the season; if the cultivation have been increased the revenue is increased; if land have been thrown up it is diminished; if it be a bad season allowances are made for it (1830, L. 2,285);

* The source whence each paragraph is derived *verbatim*, is also given; I have only added copulative conjunctions or articles for the purpose of 'dovetailing,' as it were, the sentiments scattered through a vast mass of evidence.

† C. P. in Commons' Paper; Lords' is signified by L.; the figure refers to the number of the paper or question

and in case of complaint of over-assessment it is rectified (1830, L. 1,565), as it is well understood that nothing contributes so essentially to secure the public tranquility as a low assessment (1831, C. 5,250).

The peculiarity of India in deriving a large proportion of its revenue from the land, is in fact a very great advantage; nine-tenths probably of the revenue of the Government is derived from the rent of land never appropriated to individuals, and always considered to have been the property of Government: this is one of the most fortunate circumstances that can occur in any country, because in consequence of this the wants of the State are supplied really and truly without taxation: the wants of Government are supplied without any drain, either upon the produce of the man's labour, or the produce of any man's capital (1831, C. 3,134). But the great difficulty in raising a revenue from the land in India, is the difficulty of ascertaining correctly the value of the land; approximation is all that can be obtained (1831, C. 3,162); the general proportion taken is extremely uncertain (1830, L. 2,537); because no portion of the *gross* produce of the land can ever be taken as the standard for assessment, for various proportions of the gross produce go as rent, according to all the various qualities of the soil, some lands yielding no rent, others a fourth, others a third, and other portions of the soil of a still more valuable quality, yielding half or more than half of the gross produce as rent (1831, C. 3,886); that is a surplus of the produce of the soil after a full remuneration to the cultivator for his labour and stock (do. 3,884). The instruction for many years sent from home, and impressed upon the Governments of India is, that in no case can more be taken than the rent of the land without both injustice and permanent injury to the country, not only injury to the individual cultivators, but injury to the Government itself; and in all doubtful cases, the instruction has been to take special care to err on the side of lenity rather than on the side of severity; to take less than the rent rather than more (1831, C. 3,162).

The consent of Government is not required for the cultivation of any new land; Government are happy that people should come and take up their abode; they make no enquiry, if there be no objection made by the neighbouring villagers; that is to say, that they do not occupy the land that others are in the possession of; the right of possession remaining, unless disturbed by other claimants, which rarely or never occurs (1830, L. 542 and 543).

THE ZEMINDARY OR PERPETUAL SETTLEMENT OF LORD CORNWALLIS.

One of the most material points for consideration, in respect to the land-tax, is the different modes of levying the assessment now in force (1832, C. R. P. 2). To begin with the *Zemindary* Settlement, the most obvious feature of advantage in which is the facility of collection, as it is a much more simple thing to obtain the revenue of a large district from a certain moderate number of Zemindars or contributors, than it is to perform the collection in detail by the officers of Government themselves, and another advantage undoubtedly is the greater degree of certainty in the result (1831, C. 3,339); the main difference in the mode of collecting the land revenue in different parts of British India, consisting chiefly in the different degrees of summariness, or detail adopted in the collection of the revenue, from the great mass of cultivators who hold land generally in small portions, and who have a right to the perpetual hereditary occupancy of the soil, so long as they continue to pay the revenue demanded by Government.

When the E. I. Company came into the possession of the revenues of the Dewanny of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, they found the land revenue collected in the most summary method by the intervention of officers under the Mahomedan Government, who had charge of districts sometimes of more, sometimes of less extent, with various titles such as Zemindars, and Talookdars, and who paid the revenue into the treasury

in one sum, for which they were rewarded by the Government, generally with a per centage on their collections; in fact Zemindars were found managing considerable districts whose obligations consisted in paying a certain annual amount to the Government; many of them held their districts or estates under this condition hereditarily. (1831, C. 3,114, 3,115, 3,215).

On the E. I. Company becoming possessed of the Bengal territory, great abuses were found to prevail, and to be practised by the different sorts of people employed in the collection of the revenue. The detail of the business was so great that it frightened Lord Cornwallis and the Government of the day, and they conceived that no better method for the protection of the Ryots or small cultivators could be invented than to create a species of landlords, from whom they expected much benefit to arise; the ground upon which their reasoning principally went was this, that those Zemindars, having a permanent interest in the land assigned to them, would feel an interest in the prosperity of the Ryots, in the same manner as a landlord in England feels an interest in the prosperity of his tenants. This was expected to produce two good effects, to create a landed aristocracy in the country, and above all to afford protection to the Ryots or small cultivators, from the kind of paternal feeling that was expected to pervade the Zemindars (1831, C. 3,136). With a view to the protection of the whole mass of the agricultural population and with the best of motives, the Zemindars in 1793, whether cultivators or officers in actual charge of districts, hereditarily or by special appointment, were created landholders of the country by which a property in the soil was vested in them, in nearly as full a sense as it is to the holder of a fee-simple in England; the sum which a Zemindar had been in the habit of paying was ascertained by the observation of a few prior years, the assessment or tax was *fixed for ever*, and an engagement was made that this amount of land revenue should never be raised on him; such is the nature of the settlement known by the name of 'the ZEMINDARY or

PERMANENT SETTLEMENT' (1831, C. 3,115, 3,116, 3,136, 3,215; 1832, R. C. P. 21). The countries settled on the permanent Zemindary tenure include under the Bengal Presidency, an extent of 149,782 square miles, embracing the whole of Bengal, Bahar, Benares, and Orissa (Cuttack alone excepted), with a population exclusive of the Benares province of 35,518,645, assessed in 1829-30, at a permanent Jumma or revenue of 32,470,858 sicca rupees. Under the Madras Presidency, the Zemindary settlement includes nearly the whole of the five northern Circars, lying immediately adjacent to the Bengal frontier; rather more than one-third of the Salem, and about one-third of the Chingleput districts included under the head of Madura; and a small portion of the southern division of Arcot, consisting of some of the E. I. Company's ancient lands near Cuddalore; these countries include a territory of 49,607 square miles, with a population of 3,941,021, assessed in 1829-30, at 8,511,009 sicca rupees. The permanent, or Zemindary Settlement has never extended to any portion of the provinces under the Bombay Presidency, which contain 59,438 square miles, with a population estimated at 6,251,546; and 5,500 square miles in the northern Concan, of which the population is unknown; far the greater part of the Madras territories, to the extent of 92,316 square miles, with a population of 9,567,514, has also been exempted from it; as has also been the case in the province of Cuttack, under the Bengal Government, containing 9,040 square miles, and a population of 1,984,620; neither has the Permanent Settlement been extended to the upper or Western Provinces under the Supreme Government, embracing 66,510 square miles, and a population of 32,206,806; nor to the districts ceded on the Nerbudda, and by the Rajah of Berar in 1826, containing 85,700 square miles, of which the population is unknown; thus of the British territorial possessions on the continent of Asia, including an area of 512,878 square miles, the Permanent or Zemindary Settlement extends over but 199,389 square miles (1832, R. C. P. 21). We may now proceed to the consideration of the VILLAGE SYSTEM.

VILLAGE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM.

The landed property in Upper India may be said to belong to the community of a village, each village having head men, leaders, or principals, called *Mocuddims*, or *Potails*, who either by descent, or sometimes by their personal influence, obtain a superiority in the village, and the management of its affairs; they are selected by the villagers, and removable at their pleasure.

The lands are let out to men sometimes in the same village, sometimes in the neighbouring village, while certain portions, and certain rights are possessed by the different craftsmen or artizans of the village, such as the schoolmaster, the washerman, the barber, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the watchman, the village accountant, &c., who have each a right to a certain share in the produce of the soil, of which there is also a certain portion set aside for certain recognised expenses of the village, and for defraying its hospitality towards strangers (1830, L. 398, 399, 405, 406, 529). These village communities are little republics, having nearly everything that they want within themselves, and almost independent of any foreign relations. Dynasty after dynasty tumbles down; revolution succeeds to revolution; Hindoo, Patan, Mogul, Mahratta, Seik, English, are all masters in turn, but the village communities remain the same. In times of trouble they arm and fortify themselves; an hostile army passes through the country; the village communities collect their cattle within their walls, and let the enemy pass unprovoked. If plunder and devastation be directed against themselves, and the force employed be irresistible, they flee to friendly villages at a distance, but when the storm has passed over, they return and resume their occupations. If a country remain for a series of years the scene of continued pillage and massacre, so that the village cannot be inhabited, the scattered villagers nevertheless return whenever the power of peaceable possession revives: a generation may pass away, but the succeeding generation will return: the sons will take the place of their fathers, the same site for the village, the same position for the houses, the same lands will be occupied by the descend-

ants of those who were driven out when the village was depopulated, and it is not a trifling matter that will drive them out, for they will often maintain their post through times of disturbance and convulsion, and acquire strength sufficient to resist pillage and oppression with success. This union of the village communities each one forming a separate little state in itself, has contributed more than any other cause to the preservation of the people of India, through all the revolutions and changes which they have suffered, and is in a high degree conducive to their happiness, and to the enjoyment of a great proportion of freedom and independence. (1832, Commons' Rev. Committee, p. 29).

It is difficult to state the proportion of the produce of the village paid to Government; the authorities know little of the precise property of any of the proprietors, it is not the interest or the wish of the village that the Government should scrutinize and know their possessions, therefore, if any one of the brotherhood fails to pay his proportion, that is a matter for the village at large to settle, they will often come forward to pay it for him, but those are all private arrangements kept to themselves; and the Mocuddim has no power from the Government to enforce the assessment, what each man in the village has to pay is an internal arrangement, which it is desirable for the Government not to interfere in, the villagers settling among themselves what each has to pay, the total assessment being calculated after enquiry into the state of prosperity in the village; what it has hitherto paid; what it is capable of paying; the state of the village lands, and what assessments they ought to bear with reference to the produce; and if the villagers are dissatisfied with their Mocuddim, or head man, they turn him out (1830, L. 401, 402, 404, 528, 583, 584.) Surveys of considerable expense have been made by Government; a minute account taken of the state of the land in each village, the fields examined in the presence of a surveying officer, with all the assistance he can procure, not only from his own servants, but from the village communities, the people themselves interested, and also the ryots and people of the neighbouring villages, who are invited to

attend. The exact limits of the village are put down, and even the detail of land within the village, the productions, houses, fruit bearing trees, and so on: the assessment is grounded upon these particulars (1831, C. 3492.) The Upper or Western Provinces of Bengal, the greater part of the Bombay territories, the ceded territories on the Nerbudda and the Province of Tanjore are all assessed by villages. (1231, C. 3119, 3123, 3129, 3130.) The Ryotwar System.—The peculiar principle of the third sort of assessment, termed *Ryotwar*, is to fix a maximum of assessment upon all the lands of the country in perpetuity; (1831, C. 4565) the money rent of each individual cultivator for the fields in his occupation is defined with as much permanency as possible, the aggregate of such rents making the total assessment, which varies each year with the increase or decrease of cultivation. Another main principal of the Ryotwar system is to protect the rights of all ryots or cultivators, as they now exist in every village from infringement; and to prevent all encroachment upon those rights (1831, C. 5156,) thus, in the Ryotwar system, the details of the interest of the respective Ryots are known completely, and not at all in the Zemindary system; and the former effectually does what the latter professes to do, but never has done, and never can do, that is, fix an assessment upon all the lands in the country. Under the Ryotwar system, the assessment goes from detail to the aggregate; it respects property of every class, that of the largest landholder, and that of the smallest; it measures and assesses every portion of an estate, and thus facilitates the transfer of landed property, as the first question when taken into the market is—what is the amount of public demand upon the land? (1831, C. 4565, 4567, 4568.) The Ryotwar system deals with the proprietor; if the Rajah be the complete proprietor, he is the person with whom the Government deals; it does not profess to interfere between him and his tenants, but in order to ascertain what the Rajah is to pay, his lands are first assessed in detail, and then in the aggregate (1831, C. 4570). The Ryotwar settlement is applicable, it it is said, in every state of things; where there are proprie-

tors it may be entered into with proprietors; where there are no proprietors it may be concluded with farmers or cultivators; it may be equally made for the largest or for the smallest quantity of land; for millions of acres, or for only a few. The owner of a single field may make his terms directly with the Government, and turn to his cultivation, knowing that he cannot be called on to pay more than a certain sum. The proprietor of the largest district may do the same: for, although the cess under this system varies according to the value of the land, difference of soil, population, situation, and other localities; and although inferior land, paying the lower cess, becomes liable when sufficiently improved to pay the higher cess; there is, nevertheless, a *maximum* for the best land, beyond which all produce is for the benefit of the landholder: and there are remissions in cases of urgent distress (1832, C. R. P. No. 29.)

Another advantage which the Ryotwar system possesses over the Zemindary, is in the creation of a great body of independent proprietors, instead of a few who are proprietors only in name; and there is an advantage to the revenue inasmuch as all the fruits of industry accumulate for the great mass of the people, but in the case of the Zemindary they accumulate for the benefit of the few, while the Ryotwar system tends also in a considerable degree to the accumulation of capital (1831, C. 4577, 4578, 4579.)

Each of these systems (as detailed in the analysis of the evidence before Parliament just given) find special and powerful advocates and arguments for the adoption of uniformity throughout India; but into this question it is not the author's province to enter; suffice it to say that the main points for consideration in any system of land assessment is the *low amount of the tax*:* and the preservation of the manorial

* A Parliamentary document gives the amount of the land tax *per head* in Bengal, in 1827, at 22 *pence yearly*,—in Madras 52 pence, and in Bombay 60 pence; and *per square mile*, Bengal 23 pence, Madras 17 pence, and Bombay 19 pence; the population per square mile in each Presidency

rights of the Ryots or cultivators. Adam Smith admits that a land-tax so managed as to give not only no discouragement, but on the contrary some encouragement to the improvement of land; which rises and falls with general not partial prosperity, that makes it the paramount benefit of the Government to preserve peace foreign and domestic; to augment by every possible means the quality and quantity of territorial produce: to provide easy, cheap, and expeditious transit by land and water to the most profitable markets,—a land-tax thus managed, pressing fairly and lightly on each individual, and influenced by fixed and comprehensive principles of general utility, most beneficially unites the governed and the governor by the least dissoluble ties of mutual self-interest.

By Lord Cornwallis' permanent settlement in Lower Bengal much good was effected, accompanied, however, with no small portion of evil; the *fixing for ever* the assessment on the land was admirable in principle and highly beneficial to the proprietors, but the Government lost the advantage of increased prosperity in the country in consequence of the tax being fixed at a *money* instead of a *corn* rent; had the latter been adopted the tenant could not complain, and the resources of the state would not have suffered: the next evil arose from considering the Zemindars as landed proprietors instead of what they generally were, mere collectors or farmers of the revenue; the interests and rights of the Ryots or cultivating tenants of the soil were thus entirely lost sight of, and no measure has since been devised which would restore them without the allegation being raised of our infringing the solemn compact of the permanent or Zemindary settlement.

With reference to extending the system of the last named settlements to the Upper Provinces of Bengal, it seems neither prudent nor practicable so to do on account of the village corporations or communities described at p. 340.

This, much, however, might be accomplished—the fixing of the Government assessment every 10, 20, or 30 years, at a

being, for Bengal 244, Madras 77, and Bombay 76. Land in Bengal is valued at 67 *years' purchase.*

corn rent;—the settlements might be made with each village, leaving to the latter the choice of a longer or shorter lease: this plan might also be extended to the south of India, where the *Ryotwar* system is in force; its advantages would be that a stimulus would be given to cultivation and improvement for 10, 20, or 30 years without the Government, like the tithe owner in England, stepping forth to reap the reward of skill and industry;—the assessment being at a corn rent, the Government would not have a revenue fluctuating according to the rise or fall in the prices of gold or silver,—and the rights of individual cultivators as under the Madras Presidency—or of village communities, as under the Bombay territories would be preserved; while the necessity for annual scrutiny, and continual vexatious interference of the Government with the farmers would be happily annulled.

Land Revenue in British India, at Five Intervals (to shew its progress).

LAND REVENUES.		1789-90.	1799-1800.	1809-1810.	1819-1820.	1829-1830*	1835.
Bengal, Behar, and Orissa.							
Revenues, Current,	S. Rs.	2,56,06,200	2,33,67,056	2,60,82,136	2,71,99,225	2,66,35,715	
Balances	Do.	9,67,989	31,92,917	11,45,267	22,71,617	29,49,339	
Not in Jumma	Do.	1,19,021	2,13,569	39,267	4,37,171	4,37,411	
Miscellaneous	Do.	1,42,996	38,422	81,645	1,36,059	8,60,698	
Total		2,68,36,206	2,68,01,994	2,73,51,275	3,00,44,072	3,08,83,182	
Benares.							
Revenues, Current,	S. Rs.	36,24,823	32,63,420	37,44,142	43,80,451	44,85,725	
Balances	Do.	3,94,241	4,28,287	1,27,109	36,059	3,34,296	
Not in Jumma	Do.		45,138	59,271	39,207	55,401	
Total		40,19,064	37,36,845	39,30,521	44,55,716	48,75,422	
Ceded and Conquered Provinces under Bengal.							
Revenues, Current, Ceded Provinces,	S. Rs.			1,40,27,596	1,82,23,663	1,26,12,876	
Do. Conquered Do.	Do.			90,83,333	1,14,51,287	1,58,79,893	
Balances, Ceded Do.	Do.			14,34,854	7,22,104	3,90,807	
Do. Conquered Do.	Do.			10,70,931	6,21,800	9,16,868	
Not in Jumma, Ceded Do.	Do.			41,503	1,84,081	1,44,712	
Do. Conquered Do.	Do.			1,02,941	1,37,184	4,71,730	
Miscellaneous, Ceded Do.	Do.			46,704	1,31,216	76,257	
Do. Conquered Do.	Do.			2,17,582	65,738	84,771	
Total				2,60,29,499	3,15,37,273	3,05,77,919	
Ancient Possessions.							
Revenues, Current,	Pagodas	12,74,477	15,58,812	16,29,562	19,84,857	19,67,513	
Arrears of Do.	Do.	2,99,625	5,58,783	5,01,410	2,25,024	1,82,184	
Total							
Ceded and Conquered Provinces.							
Revenues, Current,	Pagodas		20,25,093	75,93,033	71,21,258	65,19,888	
Arrears of Do.	Do.		1,98,658	6,98,564	4,84,965	4,22,856	
Total			22,23,751	81,91,597	76,06,223	69,42,744	
Bombay.—Ancient Possessions.							
Revenues, Current,	Rupees		2,70,465	3,96,853	3,07,043	14,28,249	
Ceded and Conquered Provinces.							
Revenues, Current,	Rupees		19,06,304	30,53,010	1,30,24,793	1,21,29,060	
Total			21,76,769	34,49,863	1,33,31,836	1,35,57,229	

* For Bengal the return is 1828-1829.

SALT.—The next main item of revenue in Bengal is derived from the manufacture and sale of salt by Government, the average annual produce of which is about 1,800,000*l.* a year. It is in evidence before Parliament that the people are abundantly supplied with salt, and the tax is less than *four farthings* a month on each individual. Efforts have been made to authorise the Cheshire salt makers to furnish the Bengalese with salt; when the English Parliament remits or even lessens the duty levied on the Hindoo's sugar being imported into Great Britain, then the Hindoos may receive English salt. Upper Bengal is supplied with salt partly from the Lower Province, and partly from salt mines in Western India. Madras exports salt to Bengal prepared by solar evaporation in exchange for rice and other provisions, and Bombay makes salt enough for its own use; the revenue in Bombay and Madras is trifling in amount compared with Bengal, being in the latter about 300,000*l.* and in the former not 20,000*l.* a year. Mr. St. George Tucker, lately Chairman of the E. I. Company, thus details the salt revenue for 1827, which he states to be a fair year for judging of the average revenue:

Population of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, computed at*	30,000,000
Quantity of salt consumed by this population, supplied from our sales, *maunds*	45,00,000
Gross sale, at about 390 rupees per 100 maunds	S. rupees 1,75,00,000
Deduct cost and charges, which constitute no part of the tax	 50,00,000
Net revenue or monopoly profit	*rupees* 1,25,00,000
at 2s. per sicca rupee	*£. sterl.* 1,250,000
Medium consumption of each individual, per annum	6 seers = 12 lbs.
Rate of contribution or poll-tax, yearly	10 pence

The charges on the salt revenue amounted in Bengal, in 1828 to S.R., 71,21,183, or 826,057*l.* viz. advances to manufacturers, S. R., 42,91,768; convention with the French government to prevent any interference with the E. I. Company's revenue, 4,00,000; ditto with the Danish government,

* It is now upwards of 40,000,000, which would, of course, decrease the amount of the tax paid by each individual.

15,000; salaries, commission to agents on manufacture, rent, establishments and contingencies, 22,61,527; buildings, &c. 1,52,888. At Madras the charge on the salt revenue for the same year was 85,495*l.* or S. R. 7,52,021; of which the manufacturers' share was S.R. 2,50,542; the advances, 1,00,843; the compensations, 25,842; and Moyen Zabitah and other charges, 3,74,794.

Account of the Quantity of Salt sold, the Gross Proceeds, Net Profit, and Average of the Net Profit, from 1803-4, in the Territories under the Bengal Government subject to the Salt Monopoly.

Years.	Quantity of Salt sold.	Gross Proceeds.	Net Profit.	Average of Net Profit.	Average Price per Maund.
	Maunds.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.	
1803–4	35,60,729	1,48,33,866	1,21,99,390	342 9 6	
1804–5	41,42,627	1,47,57,489	1,13,25,752	273 6 0	
1805–6	43,72,512	1,40,73,239	1,06,13,883	242 11 11	
1806–7	37,83,715	1,20,85,812	88,26,522	233 4 5	
1807–8	45,09,494	1,60,15,441	1,23,07,359	275 14 9	
1808–9	44,77,053	1,65,12,168	1,28,77,502	287 10 1	
1809–10	43,97,950	1,42,56,560	1,06,21,655	241 8 3	
1810–11	46,40,175	1,54,07,594	1,14,63,419	247 0 9	
1811–12	43,09,892	1,50,91,893	1,13,53,394	261 9 9	
1812–13	48,75,386	1,59,51,592	1,15,84,575	237 9 10	
1813–14	52,90,467	1,69,66,166	1,21,96,084	230 8	
1814–15	46,98,308	1,42,55,956	1,01,87,667	216 13 6	
1815–16	39,34,663	1,21,88,294	88,34,568	224 8 6	
1816–17	44,48,676	1,42,35,312	96,57,251	217 1 4	
1817–18	45,18,697	1,47,68,320	1,04,66,030	231 9 11	
1818–19	47,95,342	1,60,90,795	1,11,42,639	232 5 10	
1819–20	52,24,607	1,68,63,040	1,17,07,352	224 1 4	
1820–21	52,37,940	1,72,63,862	1,23,27,587	235 5 7	
1821–22	53,79,524	1,92,55,611	1,40,97,387	262 0 11	
1822–23	49,24,875	2,00,12,436	1,53,47,049	311 10 0	
1823–24	50,57,447	1,84,88,080	1,29,47,397	256 0 1	
1824–25	51,62,009	1,77,95,897	1,13,67,326	220 3 4	
1825–26	46,13,516	1,70,36,009	1,13,46,825	249 3 0	
1826–27	53,58,071	2,11,34,038	1,51,26,866	394 7 0	
1827–28	48,00,000	2,05,36,872	1,35,68,575		415
1828–29	35,00,000	1,96,10,557	1,19,89,407		357
1829–30	45,00,000	1,64,34,370	1,17,10,042		375
1830–31	42,01,000	2,01,37,086	1,56,39,533		417
1831–32	48,04,000				401
1832–33	46,00,500				376
1833–34	46,01,000				369

Opium.—The revenue derived from opium, which is only second in importance to salt, is obtained in Bengal by Government receiving the prepared juice direct from the cultivators, and offering it for sale at public auction to the exporter; (no opium is allowed to be grown in Bengal but by the cultivators who are under engagements and advances with Government) and in Bombay a transit duty is charged on the shipment of the drug to China, the opium being grown and prepared in

allied states, Malwa, for instance. Under the head of commerce further particulars will be found; it is here sufficient to say that the incidence of this tax is difficult of ascertainment: on first view it appears to fall on the consumers in China, or other foreigners in the E. Archipelago; but on a second view of the question it is evident that if the British Government did not levy the tax, the Bengal producer of the opium would be at liberty to realize if possible the present price, and pocket himself the difference which now goes into the Indian treasury. The charges in Bengal on the opium revenue for 1827-28, the latest year laid before Parliament, was 658,254*l.* or S. R. 56,74,606; of which the manufacturers received in advance, S. R. 38,79,974: and the salaries, agency establishments and contingencies were 7,26,024; and there was also a compensation to purchasers of inferior Bahar opium in 1824-25 of S. R. 10,68,608. It may here be observed that a chest or bale of the E. I. Company's opium is instantly purchased by a Chinese customer without any other examination than that of the Company's mark. The total number of chests of India opium imported into China (vide Commerce chapter) was in 1833 chests, 23,692, the value of which was Sp. dol. 15,352,429. An official document laid before the Revenue Sub-Committee of Parliament in June, 1832, gives the following detail to 1827; the subsequent years I have filled up at the India House, the form of the return, it will be perceived, differs in the latter years, when the Malwa cultivation or purchase was abandoned for a transit duty.

Quantity of Behar and Benares Opium sold in India from 1797 to 1827, prime cost, &c.

Years.	BEHAR. Quantity Sold by Auction.		BENARES. Quantity Sold by Auction.		Prime Cost at Time of Sale, per Factory Maund in Sicca Rupees.	Price per Seer to Cultivator or Manufacturer in Sicca Rupees.	MALWA. Quantity Sold by Auction.
	Chests.	Factory Maunds.	Chests.	Factory Maunds.			Chests.
1797-8	3450	7265	722	1450	82 4 –		
1798-9	3325	6894	729	1471	82 4 6		
1799 } 1800 }	3665	7668	905	1847	81 1 5	*1 13 1	
1800-1	3148	6598	799	1652	82 6 4		
1801-2	2570	5337	722	1509	83 15 9		
1802-3	2224	4610	616	1275	83 5 7		
1803-4	2380	4790	779	1615	82 4 6	*1 14 5	
1804-5	3004	6204	832	1703	79 7 6		
1805-6	3278	6828	848	1761	79 1 11		
1806-7	3649½	7580	880	1846	79 14 3		
1807-8	3420	6909	788	1623	82 14 5	*1 14 9	
1808-9	3793	7903	767	1580	82 8 10		
1809-10	3970	8319	998	2053	80 9 9		
1810-11	3885	8088	1006	2049	82 3 7		
1811-12	3959	8198	1007	2052	84 1 3		
1812-13	3844	7934	925	1928	84 2 10		
1813-14	3023	6269	649	1360	89 2 6		
1814-15	3381	7056	849	1756	86 1 1		
1815-16	3571	7317	747	1531	85 9 2		
1816-17	2885	5837	800	1639	92 2 –½		
1817-18	2863	5896	689	1404	91 4 2½		
1818-19	3095	6231	611	1257	95 10 –½		
1819-20	3161	6648	783	1601	89 14 6		
1820-21	2537	4989	508	1054	102 13 1½	*1 14 9	1,600
1821-22	3327	5530	573	1159	112 3 2	– –	1,600
1822-23	2661	4473	699	1326	115 12 9½	– –	4,000
1823-24	4148	7954	1242	2402	129 1 4	– –	4,000
1824-25	2836	6277	974	1974	135 – 8	– –	4,200
1825-26	4982	9436	1588	2981	126 8 6	– –	4,000
1826-27	4698	9981	1652	2986	138 3 6	– –	3,065
1827-28	5432		1963		17,686,387†	12,011,781‡	1,658½
1828-29	5287		2122		18,133,489	12,283,885	1,248
1829-30	6149		2429		15,262,092	11,115,436	1,284
1830-31	5601		2147		12,616,358	9,416,716	1,668
1831-32	5219		2518				1,477
1832-33	7251		3087				1,169
1833-34	8276		3947				946

Customs, whether derived by transit or other duties on land, or from goods exported or imported by sea, form the next item, and are yearly increasing. The collection of *inland* or turnpike-like duties is in course of final abolition (in Bom-

* These average prices, of which the maximum was rupees 2*s.* 2*d.*, were reported to the Bengal Government, in the year 1822, as having been given to the cultivators of opium at the respective periods. In 1823 the Government fixed the maximum of recompense to the cultivator at 3 rupees per Seer.

† Gross receipts. ‡ Net receipts. § This is the averaging price per chest.

bay totally abrogated); and the duties levied on sea goods very light in amount, and unaccompanied by vexatious restrictions.

Stamps are an increasing source of revenue since their establishment in Bengal in 1797, and in Calcutta city in 1828. The instruments liable to the duty in Bengal, are, contracts, deeds, conveyances, leases, powers of attorney, policies of insurance, promissory notes, receipts, bail bonds and legal proceeding generally (bills of exchange under 25 rupees, and receipts under 50 rupees, are alone exempt). In Madras stamped paper was first introduced in 1808, chiefly on legal proceedings; and in 1816 the duties were extended to bonds, deeds, leases, mortgages, bills of exchange, and receipts. In Bombay the tax was first introduced in 1815; Delhi and some other territories are not yet subjected to this duty, from the operation of which the small dealer and poor farmer is exempt, while the large capitalist or inveterate litigist is made to pay a portion of the Government expenses, the most productive stamps in India being those on money dealing and miscellaneous law papers. The charge on stamps for 1827-28, was in Bengal, 71,431*l.* or S. R. 6,15,782, viz. fees to native commissioners in Mofussil courts, S. R. 2,27,370; purchase of paper, 48,704; commission, salary, establishment and contingency, 3,39,708: for Madras the total charge was, 9,437*l.*

The *sayer* and *abkaree* taxes include a variety of items, in some places being irregular collections by provincial officers; in others licenses on professions or on manufactures, such as the distillation of spirits, which latter is collected by a *still-head* duty, manufactured after the English fashion, at the rate of six annas, or six sixteenths of a rupee per gallon, London proof. There is a tobacco monopoly in some places, and extra cesses in others; but these and other unstatesman-like sources of revenue are all in course of abolition.

The *Mint revenue* is collected by a seignorage for coining of two per cent on the produce, after allowing for the difference of standard and deducting the charges of refining when such are chargeable; that is when the silver is below the

dollar standard, which is five or six times worse than the present rupee. Copper coinage also yields to the Government a large profit, the copper money being issued at the rate of 64 (weighing 6,400 grains) for the rupee, which is about 100 per cent. above the value of the copper. The charges on the Mint revenue of Bengal was in 1827, 43,838*l.* or S. R. 3,77,867, viz. salaries, establishments and contingencies, 2,01,080; loss of weight in melting the precious metals, 1,76,787; for Madras, 20,406*l.* and Bombay, 3,637*l.*

The Post office tax is light in amount, and increasing as fast as can be expected from a post conveyed by runners on foot. The charges under this head of revenue were for *Bengal*, salaries and establishments, S. R. 1,25,594, Dawk establishment, 6,42,293. Total, S. R. 7,67,887, or 89,075*l.* *Madras*, salaries and establishments, &c. S. R. 64,973. Tappal establishment, 1,91,744. Total, S. R. 2,56,717, or 29,339*l.* *Bombay*, 18,148*l.*

The charges for transmission of letters through the Government Post Offices of British India are—

In Bengal, a letter is forwarded 1000 miles for 12 annas, or 1*s.* 6*d.*; in Bombay, ditto 1,000 ditto for 15 ditto or 1*s.* 10½*d.*; in Madras, do. 1,000 do. for 17 ditto or 2*s.* 1½.

Judicial revenue is raised on stamps requisite in causes of different amount in order to defray legal charges and discourage litigation, to which the wealthier Hindoos are much prone:—In suits for sums not exceeding 16 rupees, the plaint or petition must be written on paper bearing a stamp of one rupee. If the suit exceed 16 rupees, and do not exceed 32 rupees, a stamp of two rupees is required. Above 32 rupees, and not exceeding 64, the stamp is four rupees. Above 64 rupees, and not exceeding 150, eight rupees. Above 150 rupees, and not exceeding 300, 16 rupees. Above 300 rupees, and not exceeding 800, 32 rupees. Above 800 rupees, and not exceeding 1,600, 50 rupees. Above 1,600 rupees, and not exceeding 3,000, 100 rupees. Above 3,000 rupees, and not exceeding 5,000, 150 rupees. Above 5,000 rupees, and not exceeding 10,000, 250 rupees. Above 10,000 rupees, and

not exceeding 15,000, 350 rupees. Above 15,000 rupees, and not exceeding 25,000, 500 rupees. Above 25,000 rupees, and not exceeding 50,000, 750 rupees. Above 50,000 rupees, and not exceeding 100,000, 1,000 rupees. Above 100,000 rupees, 2,000 rupees. The other stamp duties to which the parties are subject, besides the institution stamp, are,—all exhibits filed in court are required to be accompanied with an application praying the admission of the same, and that application must be written on stamped paper: if in the Zillah Court, the stamp is one rupee; in the Provincial Court and the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, two rupees. So also no summons is issued for the attendance of any witness without an application in writing, praying the attendance of such person, which application must be written on stamped paper, similar to that prescribed in the case of filing exhibits. Further answers, replications, rejoinders, supplemental pleadings, and all agreements of comprise and petitions, are required to be written on stamps of one rupee in the Zillah Court, and four rupees in the Provincial Court in the Sudder Dewanny. Miscellaneous petitions and applications preferred to public authorities, either revenue or judicial, are required to be written on stamps of eight annas, if preferred to a Zillah judge or magistrate, or collector; of one rupee, if to a Court of Appeal or Circuit; and of two rupees, if to the Sudder Dewanny or Nizamut Adawlut, or to the Board of Revenue. The appointment of the vakeels to act in each case is made by an instrument bearing a similar stamp. Copies of decrees also are required to be stamped: in the Zillah Court the stamp is one rupee; in the Provincial Court, two rupees; in the Sudder, four rupees; and all proceedings of the Sudder prepared for transmission to the King in Council must be transcribed on paper bearing a stamp of two rupees. Copies of miscellaneous papers are required to be written on a stamp of eight annas, or half-rupee.—[For costs of a suit in the different Courts, see Appendix.]

The Judicial charges are exceedingly heavy, viz. in *Bengal*, the Supreme court, S. R. 4,32,337; Justices of the peace and

diet of the prisoners at Calcutta, 2,51,693; Court of Requests, 98,605; Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, 6,38,869; Provincial courts of appeal and Zillah Adawluts, 62,69,040; Provincial police, 17,89,377; extra and contingent charges, 370,318; Pensions, 38,455. Total, S. R. 9,89,91,694 or sterling 1,147,436*l.*—*In Madras*, Supreme Court, S. R. 3,08,700; Police charges in town of Madras, 1,33,040; Court of Sudder and Fouzdary Adawlut, 2,53,557; Provincial Courts, 25,97,490; Pensions, &c. 7,342. Total, S. R. 33,00,129 or 377,158*l.*—*In Bombay*, Supreme Court, S. R. 3,68,400; Police charges at Bombay Presidency, 1,27,540; Court of Sudder and Fouzdary Adawlut, 2,62,891; Provincial Courts, 19,39,774; Buildings, &c. 76,701. Total, S. R. 27,75,306 or 312,222*l.* The grand total for the three Presidencies being 1,836,816*l.* sterling, (for the charge for the past year vide table prefixed to this Chapter.)

The Marine revenue arises from port and anchorage dues, &c. in order to keep up the useful establishments at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, in particular at the former port.

The foregoing items are the principal, if not the sole, sources of the Government revenue of 18 to 20,000,000*l.* a-year, and they offer a strong contrast to the manner in which 50,000,000*l.* a year is raised in Great Britain chiefly on the necessaries of life, or on the comforts and industry of the people.

Monetary System.—The Bank of Bengal, (the only chartered bank in our Eastern possessions) established in 1809, by a charter from the Governor-General in Council, under Act of Parliament, is partly a private, partly a Government bank, regulated as a bank of discounts and deposits, on the principles of the Bank of England, and confined in its accounts and transactions to Calcutta. The shares are in value 1,000*l.* each, and in number 500; the Government hold 100 with power to nominate three Directors, while the proprietors elect six; the President is elected by the Directors, and the proprietors can vote by proxy. Natives may become Directors if chosen by the proprietors. The premium on bank stock is about 50 per cent., and the average amount of divi-

dend of late years nine to ten per cent. The accounts are public, and regularly laid before government twice a-year, and of a *paid-up* capital of 5,000,000 rupees, part is vested in Government securities, and the remainder employed in the trade of banking. It issues notes which vary in amount from 10 rupees to 20,000 rupees, there being no maximum or minimum limitation. The largest proportion is in notes of 100 rupees upwards: the average amount of its paper in circulation is 800,000*l.* which is all payable on demand at sight. The notes circulate among the natives as far as Bahar, or wherever they are received in the Government Treasuries in receipt for revenue, &c. There are two restrictions upon the issue of paper money, the first practical, namely a reservation of cash equivalent to a fourth of its engagements payable on demand, and the second, that the circulation of notes shall not exceed 2,000,000*l.* but there has scarcely ever been a demand for notes to half that extent. The Bank of Bengal has no monopoly, it is however the only chartered bank, *i.e.* it is a corporation, can sue and be sued under its common seal, and individuals proprietors are not liable beyond the amount of their subscription; its other exclusive advantage consists in Government receiving its notes solely. The following is the latest return shewing the balance of the Bank of Bengal, 29th June, 1833.

Dr.	S. Rs.	Cr.	S. Rs.
Cash, government securities, loans on deposits of government securities, &c., and bills on government discounted	12,595,498	Bank notes and post bills outstanding and claims payable on demand	12,105,443
Private bills discounted	3,918,589	Net stock	5,248,066
Doubtful debts	719,158		
Advance for legal proceedings	3,235		
Dead stock	117,029		
Total	S. Rs. 17,353,509	Total	S. Rs. 17,353,509

Rates of business, on this date 6 per cent. for private bill discounts, and 4 per cent. for deposit loans; its issues are twelve million rupees,—a sum more than 50 per cent. in excess of the minimum of 1827, in which year the whole amount of bank notes, including those of the three private banks then

in existence, was not greater than the present joint circulation of the Bank of Bengal and the Union Bank. The bank has lost considerably by bad debts and by forgeries, at which latter the natives are extremely expert. There is an establishment termed the UNION BANK at Calcutta, supported by the principal merchants, and quite unconnected with Government. Madras has no bank precisely similar to that of Bengal, and Bombay has not, I believe, any European bank issuing money. There can now scarcely be said to be any gold coin in circulation in Bengal, and the highest silver denomination is rupees, viz. those of Calcutta and Furruckabad. The Furruckabad rupee weighs 180·234 grs. troy; Calcutta rupee 191·916 grs. troy. For practical purposes the Calcutta rupee may be valued as weighing 192 grs. troy, with 176 of silver, and the Furruckabad 180 grs. with 165 of pure metal. The Madras rupee, as established in 1818, consists of 180 grs. and contains 165 grs. of pure silver, and 15 grs. of alloy. The gold coinage is of the same weight and fineness as the silver, but the ratio between gold and silver is liable to be varied from time to time by Government proclamation. Bengal, Madras, and Bombay have each a mint, at which are coined rupees agreeing in standard and weight with the Furruckabad rupees, and the rupees of the three Presidencies are issued to the army at a nominal value, termed a *Sonaut* rupee. The gold coins that issue from the mint can scarcely be reckoned among the currencies, because the market value of gold having risen considerably above the mint value, it has ceased to circulate at the prescribed, or at any fixed rate The gold mohur of Bengal weighs 204·710 grs. of which the fine gold is 187·651 grs.; the Madras gold rupee is of the same weight and standard with the silver, viz. 180 grs.; and at both Presidencies the relative value of gold to silver is fifteen to one, the Bengal mohur being reckoned equal to 16 rupees. A copper coin, weighing 100 grs. is current through the Bengal territories at the rate of 64 to 7 rupees, but it is a legal tender only for the fractional parts of the rupee; cowrees or sea shells still circulate, and to a con-

siderable extent in some provinces, but they are disappearing with the prosperity of the country.

A large mint has been established at Bombay for an uniform coinage, as there are a great number of different rupees current in the Deckhan, coined in different years, and having a marketable value, according to their value. The rates of exchange vary not only between Bombay and Poonah, but between district and district. Gold is not current in the Deckhan; there is no paper circulation; but native '*Hoondees*,' or small bills of exchange, are numerous. The circulating medium is silver and copper, the relative value altering in favour of the latter; all their gold has been exported to England years ago. Ordinary interest of money with the natives nine, and with the European mercantile houses five, per cent. At Calcutta from six to twelve per cent.

The total coinage of the four mints (Calcutta, Benares, Furruckabad, and Sagur) for the period of 31 years, has been 53,322,600. The bullion importation viâ Calcutta, from 1813-14 to 1831-32 is valued at S. R. 355,837,644; from which, deducting the exports of bullion for the same period, 65,396,544, leave bullion disposed of in the country, S. R. 295,446,100. The coinage of the several mints for the above term of 18 years was—Calcutta, S. R. 203,615,962; Benares, S.R. 88,236,359; Furruckabad, 47,252,843; Sagur, 4,324,779. Making a total of S. R. 343,522,940, being an excess of one-fifth above the imports, or S. R. 53,076,840. The coinage of the native mints is estimated at one half of our own, which will give a total of 3,02,93,578, or three crores per annum for the Bengal Presidency, being 150,000 per diem for 200 working days.

The total coinage of copper pice since 1801, bears a value in silver of 50½ lakhs of S. R., which in tale is 32½ crores for 31 years—or one crore per annum; thus adding 50,000 pieces to the daily work as above mentioned.

By a financial regulation of the Bengal Government (13th May, 1833,) it is enacted that,

The Weight and Standard of the Calcutta Sicca Rupee and its subdivisions, and of the Furruckabad Rupee, shall be as follows:—

	Weight. Grains.	Fine. Grains.	Alloy. Grains.
Cal. Sicca Rupee . . .	192	176	16
Ditto half	96	88	8
Ditto quarter	48	44	4
Furruckabad Rupee . . .	180	165	15

and its fractions in proportion being 1-12th alloy.

The use of the Sicca Weight of 179·666 Grains hitherto employed for the receipt of Bullion at the Mint, being in fact the weight of the Moorshedabad Rupee of the old Standard, which was assumed as the Sicca Currency of the Honourable Company's Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, shall be discontinued, and in its place the following Unit, to be called the Tola, shall be introduced, which, from its immediate connexion with the Rupee of the Upper Provinces, and of the Madras and Bombay, will easily and speedily become universal throughout the British territories.

The *Tola* or *Sicca Weight* to be equal to 180 Grains Troy, and the other denominations of weight to be derived from this Unit, according to the following scale:—

8 Ruttees—1 Musha—15 Troy grains.
12 Mushas—1 Tola—180 ditto.
80 Tolas (or Sicca Weight)—1 seer—2½ lbs. ditto.
40 Seers—1 Mun, or Bazar Maund—100 lbs. Troy.

At Calcutta the monies of account are as follows: 4 cowries*=1 gunda=16 annas=1 S. rupee (20 gundas—1 punn—4 punns—1 anna) 16 S. rupees—1 gold mohur. The usual accounts are 4 punns or 12 pice=1 anna—16 annas = 1 S. rupee—16 S. S. rupees=1 gold mohur.

At Madras there is a considerable variety of coins in circulation; accounts are kept thus 80 cash=1 fanam; 12 fanams =1 rupee, and 42 fanams=1 pagoda, star or current pagoda worth 7*s.* 5½*d.*, commonly valued at 8*s.* The gold rupee, new coinage, 1*l.* 9*s.* 2½*d.*, according to the mint price of gold in England. Arcot rupee (silver) and new ditto, 1*s.* 11¼*d.* and 1*s.* 11½d. Copper pieces coined in England of 20 cash, called *pice*, and of 10 and 5 cash, called *dodees* and half *dodees*, are also current.

Bombay rupee divided inty 4 qrs., each qr. being 100 reas; there are 2 reas in an *urdee*, 4 in a *doogany* or single pice, 6 reas in a *doreea*, 8 reas in a *fuddea* or double pice, 50 pice or 16 annas in the *rupee*, 5 rupees in a *paunchca*, and 15 rupees in a gold mohur. The annas and reas are imaginary

* Cowrie are a small shells, plentiful on Eastern shores, particularly those of Africa; they are, however, fast disappearing from commercial transactions at the Presidencies.

coins; the double and single pice, the urdeea and the doreea, are copper coins, with a mixture of tin or lead; the others are the gold mohur and silver rupee, with their divisions. The following is the assay and sterling value of the principal gold and silver coinage of Calcutta and Bombay; a lengthened and elaborate document on the subject will be found in the *Appendix*.

		Gross Weight.	Pure Metal.	Sterling Value.
		Grs.	Grs.	£. s. d.
Calcutta.	Gold Mohur	204.710	187.651	1 13 2⅔ 2.25
	Sicca Rupees	191.916	175.923	2 0½ 6.25
	Furrackabad	180.234	165.215	1 11½ 8.25
Bombay.	Gold Mohur	179.0	164.68	1 9 0
	Silver Rupee	179.0	164.68	0 2 0
Madras.	Rupee	180.0	165.0	

By the latest accounts from India it was proposed to establish a new bank at Agra, and savings' banks were about to be set on foot under the sanction and superintendence of Government.

For a long period the flow of the precious metals was towards India; the current has now, however, changed, and the exportations from India to Europe of gold and silver has been yearly augmenting.

Net Import or Export of Treasure into and from India in each year, from 1813-14 to 1832-33 inclusive. (For a complete view of the Importations and Exportations at each Presidency see *Appendix*.)

Years.	Net Import.*	Years.	Net Import.*	Years.	Net Import.*	Years.	Net Export.*
	Sa. Rs.		Sa. Rs.		Sa. Rs.		Sa. Rs.
1813-14	28,85,889	1819-20	4,20,28,423	1825-26	1,58,92,180	1831-32	64,91,663
1814-15	1,07,08,688	1820-21	2,81,15,843	1826-27	2,03,14,283	1832-33	15,14,088
1815-16	2,25,38,848	1821-22	1,10,49,282	1827-28	1,82,00,970	1833-34	"
1816-17	4,58,09,541	1822-23	2,02,23,913	1828-29	1,43,00,382	1834-35	"
1817-18	4,25,33,483	1823-24	35,81,805	1829-30	1,15,44,754	1835-36	"
1818-19	6,52,33,925	1824-25	1,17,71,980	1830-31	99,32,950		

The treasure held in the several Treasuries of the Com-

* It will be seen by the 4th column that there is now a greater export from than import into India.

pany, under the Bengal Presidency,* amounts generally to 3,000,000, and under the subordinate Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, the amount fluctuates from 2,000,000 to 3,000,000 stg. Before the breaking out of the Burmese war, from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 stg. was collected by the Marquis of Hastings in Bengal, for the purpose of paying off the debt. The accumulations of such large balances in the hands of government has justly been objected to, as causing sudden and excessive fluctuations in the currency of the country. The amount of remittances from India to England is very great; being, first, the sum requisite to pay territorial

* LIST OF THE SEVERAL TREASURIES IN INDIA.—*Bengal* (*Political.*)—General Treasury, Lucknow, Gwalior, Indore, Nipaul, Nagpore, Delhi, South Behar, Bhopal, N. E. Frontier, Bithoor, Amherst, &c., P. W. Island, Singapore, Malacca.

Bengal (*Revenue*). — Burdwan, Backergunge, Beerbhoom, Bullooah, Chittagong, Dacca, Dinagepore, Hooghly, Jessore, Jungle Mehals, Mymensing, Moorshedabad, Nuddeah, Purneah, Rajeshahye, Rungpore, Sylhet, Tipperah, 24 Pergunnahs, Behar, Patna, Bhangulpore, Ramghur, Sarun, Shahabad, Tirhoot, Hidgelee, Midnapore, Cuttack, Pooree, Balasore, Rungpore (N. E. Frontier), Sherepore, Lower Assam, Upper Assam, Arracan, Sandowee, Ramree, Benares, Ghazeepore, Juanpore, Allahabad, Futtehpore, Bareilly, Cawnpore, Etawah, Furruckabad, Goruckpore, Moradabad (S. D.), Ditto (N. D.), Shajehanpore, Agra, Allyghur, Saheswar, Bolundshhahur, Saidabad, Calpee, Delhi (Centre Division), Ditto (N. Ditto), Ditto (W. Ditto), Ditto (S. Ditto), Ditto (Rohtack Ditto), Seharunpore, Meerut, Kumaon, Sangor, Huttah, Jubbulpore, Nusingpore, Seoree, Hussingabad, Baitool, Reply, Rajpootana, Banda, Pilibheet, Deyrah, Moozuffernugger, Jaggernauth.

Madras (*Political*).—General Treasury, Masulipatam General Treasury, Travancore, Mysore, Hydrabad, Tanjore, Vellore, Paymaster of Stipends.

Madras (*Revenue*).—Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Rajahmundry, Masulipatam, Guntoor, Nellore, Chingleput, Arcot (N. Division), Ditto (S. Ditto), Bellary, Cuddapah, Coimbatore, Salem, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Canara, Madura, Tinnivelly, Malabar.

Bombay (*Political*). — General Treasury, Baroda, Bushire, Bussorah, Mocha, Cutch.

Bombay (*Revenue*).—Southern Concan, Northern Ditto, Surat, Broach, E. Zillah N. of the Myhee, Ahmedabad, Kattywar, Poonah, Ahmednugger, Carnatic, Candeish.

charges in England, 3,000,000*l.*; second, a demand for remittance of private savings and family expenses, estimated at 1,500,000*l.*; and third, a return for the outward trade, 3,000,000*l.*; total, 7,500,000*l.**

These returns are made through the commerce of India and China, or of bullion from both countries.

The territorial charges of India, payable in England, consist of payments on account of passage of military (68,000*l.*), pay to officers, including off reckonings, (120,000*l.*); political freight and demurrage, (134,000*l.*); war office demand for King's troops serving in India, (220,000*l.*); retiring pay, pensions, &c. to King's troops, (60,000*l.*); political charges general (including the political charge for the establishments at the India House, 100,000*l.*); the Board of Control, (30,000*l.*) Haileybury, Addiscomb, (22,000*l.*); Chatham and recruiting, &c. (44,000*l.*); miscellaneous expenses on account of Prince of Wales Island, Singapore, &c. (140,000*l.*); charges of the Tanjore Commission, (4,000*l.*); absentee allowance, &c. to civil service, (30,000*l.*); territorial stores, (500,000*l.*); St. Helena charges (now terminating) (120,000*l.*); Lord Clive's fund, (33,000*l.*); political annuitants and pensioners, (58,000*l.*), &c. &c.

A brief view of the Indian debt will next be requisite. In the early period of British connexion with India, the territorial revenues of the country probably aided commerce, in the latter period commerce undoubtedly aided territory, and for 15 years the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay have had an annual deficit of the sum requisite to meet political charges. The Indian Government was therefore obliged to have recourse to borrow a sufficiency to meet the deficit which the commercial profits of the tea trade failed to supply; and the territorial debt of India was, at four different periods, thus—

* The annual drain on India in remittances to England on account of Government, is thought by Mr. Mills, of the Auditor-general's department, to average £3,000,000 a year for the last 30 years, I have elsewhere shewn what this sum amounts to in compound interest for that period.

	Debt at Interest.*	Floating Ditto.†	Total.
1792	£7,129,934	£2,012,786	£9,142,720
1809	27,089,831	3,722,810	30,812,441
1814	26,970,786	3,948,844	30,919,620
1829	39,377,880	7,874,494	47,255,374
1833	35,500,000	9,300,000	44,800,000

Of this Indian debt that of Bengal is the principal, the fixed or registered debt of which, with the relative proportion held by Europeans and natives was, in 1830 and in 1833—

Date of Loan.	Sicca Rupees. Held by Europeans.		Sicca Rupees. By Natives.		Total. Sicca Rupees.	
	1830.	1833.	1830.	1833.	1830.	1833.
Six per cent. loan 1822	7,03,43,500	7,04,94,500	43,68,700	42,44,200	7,47,12,200	7,47,38,700
Five Do. 31st Mar. 1823	7,09,87,800	4,78,54,100	2,06,39,700	1,42,07,900	9,16,27,500	6,20,62,000
Five Ditto of 1825-26..	5,32,74,800	6,26,79,800	4,08,79,500	2,59,55,300	9,41,54,300	8,86,35,100
Five Ditto of 1829-30..	19,51,700	71,96,000	7,01,300	97,73,000	26,53,000	1,69,69,000
Four Ditto of 1824-25 .	3,13,000	3,22,100	5,86,200	8,99,500	8,99,200	12,21,600
Four Ditto of 1828-29 .	6,63,600	2,87,400	5 84,100	2,44,200	12,47,700	5,31,600
Four Do. 1st May, 1832		1,59,61,700		1,20,48,300		2,80,10,000
Total.....	19,74,34,400	20,47,95,600	6,77,59,500	6,73,72,400	20,52,93,900	27,21,68,000

Of the first or six per cent. remittable loan, the principal, when repaid, is demandable in bills on England at the rate of *2s. 6d.* the Sicca rupee, the interest being intermediately payable half yearly, either in cash in India, or if the proprietors reside in Europe, and demand it in that form by bills at the rate of *2s. 1d.* The other loans, both principal and interest, are demandable only in India; but to the holders of the second (five per cent. of 1823) an option was given of receiving their interest, (which is payable half yearly), in bills at the rate of *2s. 1d.*, (subsequently reduced to *1s. 11d.*) during the pleasure of the home authorities:‡ the third and fourth loans have the interest thereon paid quarterly to all holders wheresoever resident, either in cash or in bills, at the rate of

* Principally composed of the loans and treasury notes.

† *Not* bearing interest, and consisting for the greater part of arrears of salaries and allowances due to civil officers; of pay due to the military, (who in Bengal are kept two months in arrear always), and of deposits.

‡ Of the whole interest of the Indian debt, 927,000*l.* is subject to the option of having the interest payable in England, and in 1830 the sum of 450,000*l.* was actually demanded in England: the average rate of interest was six per cent. in 1814, and five per cent. in 1828.

2s., during the pleasure of the home authorities. The five per cent. loan of 1823 is repayable only by annual instalments of one and a half crore of rupees; the notes first entered in the register having the advantage of being least liable to discharge. The whole debt is now fully recognised by the Legislature, and the remittable loan paper bears a premium in the Indian market of from 30 to 40 per cent., and consists solely of the debt of 1822, viz. 7,47,38,700 rupees.

The following is a detailed comparative statement of the Indian debt in 1809 and in 1827:—

Debt in S. Rupees on the 30th of April, 1809.

	10 p. Cent.	9 p. Cent.	8 per Cent.	6 p. Cent.	Total of Debt at Interest.	Debt not at Interest	Total of Debt.
Bengal.....	85,84,500	..	16,91,59,028	24,24,065	18,01,67,593	2,30,34,123	20,32,01,716
Madras.....	29,88,285	..	5,14,80,766	50,46,834	5,95,15,885	51,47,124	6,46,63,009
Bombay.....	7,97,036	23,25,169	2,97,75,696	1,66,341	3,30,64,242	36,27,834	3,66,92,076
	1,23,69,821	23,25,169	25,04,15,490	76,37,240	27,27,47,720	3,18,09,081	30,45,56,811
Deduct Sinking Fund.	..	..	2,96,17,500	..	2,94,17,500	..	2,64,17,500
	1,23,69,821	23,25,169	22,09,97,990	76,37,240	24,33,30,220	3,18,09,081	27,51,39,301
Interest.....	12,36,982	2,09,265	1,76,79,839	4,58,234	Total..	1,95,84,320	

Debt, S. Rupees, 30th April, 1827.

	10 p. Cent.	8 p. Cent.	6 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	4 p. Cent.	2 and 3⅛ Pice per Diem.	Total.
Bengal	20,607	..	9,34,92,482	16,89,64,720	23,57,400	10,700	26,48,45,909
Madras	..	1,51,724	2,58,23,810	11,12,932	1,97,898	..	2,72,86,364
Bombay.....	..	18,69,278	23,76,028	..	11,60,450	..	54,05,756
	20,607	20,21,002	12,16,92,320	17,09,77,652	37,15,748	10,700	29,75,38,029
Interest.....	2,060	1,61,680	73,01,538	85,03,882	1,48,630	500	1,61,18,290

	Debt at Interest 30th April, 1827.	Debt not bearing Interest, 30th April.	Total Bearing and not Bearing.
Bengal.....	26,48,45,909	8,68,66,994	35,17,12,903
Madras.....	2,72,86,364	83,86,464	3,56,72,828
Bombay.....	54,05,756	48,73,298	1,02,79,054
	29,75,38,029	10,01,26,756	39,76,64,785

Public Debt, bearing Interest outstanding at the several Presidencies on the 30th April, 1832.

	Registered Debt.	Debts.	Rate of Interest.	Annual amount of Interest.
Bengal.	Loans, Sicca Rupees ..	86359092	6 per cent.	5181546
	Do. do.	202481699	5 ditto.	10124085
	Do. do.	13584179	4 ditto.	543367
		302424970		15848998
	Loan transferred from Fort Marborgh, do. ..	18505	10 ditto.	1850
	Treasury Notes do. ..	4928600	Various.	243720
	Civil & Military Funds do.	9155802	6 and 8 p. cent.	610618
	Miscellaneous Deposits do.	194396	6 ditto.	11664
	Total, S. R. ..	316722273		16716850
Madras.	Carnatic Fund, Rupees	23990057	5 per cent.	1199503
	Loans, &c. do.	1273861	6 and 4 ditto.	69091
	Civil & Military Funds do.	6660330	8, 6, and 4, ditto.	489165
	Miscellaneous Deposits do.	366259	8, 6, and 5, do.	25086
	Total, Rupees ..	32290507		1782845
	In Sicca Rupees ..	30319725		1674033
Bombay	Civil & Military Funds Rs.	5034638	8 and 6 per cent.	347169
	Miscellaneous Deposits do.	1635083	6 and 4 ditto.	71802
	Rupees ..	6669721		418971
	In Sicca Rupees. ..	6262649		393400
	Grand Total ..	353304647		18784283
	In Sterling ..	£35330465		£1878428

The debts of India in 1833 were as follow:—Debts *bearing interest*—Bengal, about 32,000,000*l.*; Madras, 3,000,000*l.*; Bombay, 630,000; *not bearing interest*—Bengal, 8,000,000*l.*; Madras, 700,000*l.*; Bombay, 300,000*l.* The five per cent. loan is the principal debt, it amounts, in Bengal to 18,000,000*l.*; and in Madras, to 2,500,000*l.*; in Bombay, none. The Treasury notes issued by the Bengal Government amount to 700,000*l.*

The *home bond debt* of the E. I. Company, amounting to 3,400,000*l.* is composed of securities issued by the Company under their common seal, Parliament having authorised their borrowing money to a certain extent, and limiting its subsequent reduction to 3,000,000*l.*; the rate of interest paid in 1831 on this debt was two and a half per cent.

Revenues and Indian Charges* (independent of the home expenses) of each Presidency.

Years.	BENGAL.			MADRAS.				BOMBAY.		
	Revenue.	Charge.	Surplus.	Revenue.	Charge.	Surplus.	Deficit.	Revenue.	Charge.	Deficit.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1814	11,237,498	8,876,581	2,360,917	5,322,461	5,189,412	132,752	—	857,080	1,717,144	860,064
1815	11,415,799	9,487,638	1,928,161	5,166,107	5,261,404	—	155,297	872,046	1,986,444	1,114,398
1816	11,967,259	9,796,974	2,170,285	5,360,220	5,142,553	217,667	—	895,592	1,946,118	1,050,526
1817	11,769,552	10,281,822	1,487,730	5,381,307	5,535,816	—	154,509	1,392,820	1,956,527	563,707
1818	12,399,475	10,677,015	1,722,460	5,361,432	6,006,420	—	644,988	1,720,537	2,597,776	877,239
1819	12,224,230	10,826,734	1,397,496	5,407,605	5,825,414	—	418,109	2,161,370	3,204,785	1,043,415
1820	13,518,968	10,688,439	2,830,529	5,403,506	5,700,465	—	296,960	2,438,960	3,299,170	860,210
1821	13,361,261	10,356,409	3,004,852	5,557,028	5,500,876	56,192	—	2,883,042	3,667,332	784,290
1822	14,169,691	10,317,196	3,852,495	5,585,209	5,229,202	356,007	—	3,272,447	4,275,012	202,567
1823	12,950,308	10,912,710	2,037,598	5,498,764	6,398,856	—	900,092	2,789,550	3,264,509	454,959
1824	13,484,740	12,620,179	864,561	5,460,742	5,789,333	—	348,591	1,785,216	3,305,982	1,520,765
1825	13,121,282	13,793,499	*none*†	5,714,915	6,056,967	—	342,052	2,262,393	4,032,988	1,770,595
1826	14,767,238	13,405,152	1,362,086	5,981,681	5,634,322	347,359	—	2,618,549	4,000,552	1,382,003
1827	14,944,713	13,486,879	1,457,834	5,347,838	6,188,127	—	840,289	2,579,905	4,062,566	1,482,661
1828	16,125,416	7,747,834	2,377,582	3,591,272	3,671,111	—	79,839	1,300,311	2,421,715	1,121,404
1829	9,858,275	7,616,697	2,242,578	3,455,008	3,499,253	—	44,245	1,316,044	2,318,054	1,002,010
1830	9,883,892	7,340,650	2,543,242	3,415,759	3,388,628	27,131	—	1,304,300	2,318,637	914,337
1831	9,474,084	7,635,974	1,838,110	3,322,155	3,239,261	82,894	—	1,401,917	2,060,499	658,582
1832	9,487,778	7,687,229	1,800,549	2,969,956	3,174,347	—	204,391	1,497,309	2,034,710	537,401
1833	9,159,900	7,368,070	1,791,830	3,040,229	3,305,441	—	265,221	1,600,681	1,968,045	367,354‡
1834										

* In the above statement, from the year 1828, the allowances and assignments payable to Native Princes, and others under treaties, amounting to upwards of a million and a half per annum: and the charges of collecting the revenue, including the cost of the opium and salt, amounting to upwards of two millions and half more, have been excluded in order to arrive at the real produce of the revenue.

In the tabular statement, down to the year 1827, the gross revenues are shewn; and the rate of converting the Indian money into sterling is 16 per cent. higher than the rate at present used.

These alterations in the system of drawing up the accounts of the Indian finances, were suggested by Mr. James Cosmo Melvill, the Company's Financial Secretary, in the late arrangements under the New Charter Act, and sanctioned by the Court of Directors and the Commissioners for Indian Affairs.

† Deficit of £852,217.

‡ Estimate.

It only remains to be added, that by the new E. I. Charter the Company's trade is placed in abeyance, and their whole assets, amounting to upwards of 21,000,000*l.* sterling, appropriated to the India territory, excepting 2,000,000*l.* to be invested as a sinking fund for the redemption of the capital stock of the E. I. C. proprietors (6,000,000*l.*) on the termination of 40 years, at the rate of 5*l.* 5*s.* for every 100*l.* stock; the remainder of the assets, as soon as realised, is to be appropriated, after payment of pensions and other charges arising out of the new arrangement, towards the liquidation of the six per cent. remittable loan, which amounts to about 9,000,000*l.* sterling. Whether the revenues of India will be sufficient to meet its home and foreign charges without the aid heretofore derived from commerce, remains to be seen.*

* The annual deficit from 1814-15 is thus shewn :—

	India.		Home Charges.	Surplus.	Deficit.
	Surplus.	Deficit.			
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1814-15	1,342,273	..	1,391,865	..	49,592
1815-16	276,893	..	1,402,472	..	1,125,179
1816-17	955,451	..	1,390,359	..	434,908
1817-18	487,489	..	1,347,052	..	859,563
1818-19	..	42,766	1,446,001	..	1,488,767
1819-20	..	80,833	1,544,857	..	1,625,690
1820-21	1,648,798	..	1,414,210	234,588	..
1821-22	2,057,051	..	1,507,773	549,278	..
1822-23	3,087,960	..	1,628,153	1,459,807	..
1823-24	426,387	..	1,287,560	..	861,173
1824-25	..	1,445,487	1,651,077	..	3,096,564
1825-26	..	3,039,625	1,817,232	..	4,856,857
1826-27	71,303	..	2,429,894	..	2,358,591
1827-28	..	1,190,575	2,069,141	..	3,259,716
1828-29	1,022,130	..	1,967,405	..	945,275
1829-30	1,138,238	..	7,748,740	..	610,502
1830-31	1,799,633	..	1,473,565	326,068	..
1831-32	1,363,226	..	1,570,807	..	207,581
1832-33	1,058,757	..	1,323,089	..	264,332
1833-34					

The additional charges on the revenue of India by the new E. I. Charter 3 and 4 William IV. c. 85.) are thus stated in a Parliamentary return, No. 72, ordered to be printed 23d March, 1835.

Salaries of the Governor-General and Council, formerly S. rupees 537,000, now (by the late Act) S. R. 624,000; increase R. 87,000; new Government at Agra, the chief there of S. R. 120,000; other expenses, 300,000; total, R. 420,000. Increase of salaries of the other Governors and members of Council, on a scale which will cause a net increase, of R. 12,000. Total of Government increase, S. R. 519,000. Increased expense of Ecclesiastical establishment, R. 10,000; ditto on account of law commissioners, established at R. 800,000; grand total of estimated new and increased charges, S. R. 829,000.

Commerce of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, with Great Britain, North and South America, France, Lisbon, &c. [House of Commons, June 1833.]

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

From—	Merchandise. S. Rupees.	Bullion. S. Rs.	Total. S. Rs.
Great Britain	1,97,84,811	7,602	1,97,92,413
N. America	14,78,445	8,47,849	20,26,294
South Ditto	4,05,981	None	4,05,981
Lisbon	37,163	Ditto	37,163
France	8,70,950	3,000	8,73,950
Sweden	55,572	None	55,572
Hamburg	26,394	Ditto	26,394
Total	2,23,59,316	8,55,451	2,32,17,767

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

By—	Merchandise Rupees.	Bullion. Rupees.	Total. Rupees.
E. I. Company	1,23,28,954	None	1,23,28,954
British Merch.	1,19,16,832	30,21,184	1,49,38,016
N. America	22,80,344	None	22,80,344
South Ditto	....	....	....
France	27,64,076	3,000	27,67,076
Sweden	1,06,337	None	1,06,337
Total	2,9390,543	30,24,184	3,2420,727

MADRAS.

	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.
Great Britain	21,78,744	None	21,78,744
America	15,675	Ditto	15,675
France	1,73,502	5,800	1,79,302
Total	23,67,921	5,800	23,73,721

MADRAS.

	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.
E. I. Company	2,43,513	None	2,43,513
British Merch.	16,37,230	5,95,954	22,33,184
America	43,812	None	43,812
France	2,22,783	Ditto	2,32,783
Total	21,57,338	5,95,954	27,53,232

BOMBAY.

	B. Rs.	B. Rs.	B. Rs.
Great Britain	91,12,911	4,050	91,16,961
America	1,09,851	None	1,09,851
Brazils	1,33,406	92,800	2,26,206
France	1,84,793	None	1,84,793
Holland	19,084	Ditto	19,084
Sweden	97,505	Ditto	97,505
Total	96,56,550	96,850	97,53,500

BOMBAY.

	B. Rs.	B. Rs.	B. Rs.
Great Britain	53,85,476	14,54,620	68,40,096
America	29,648	None	29,648
Brazils	59,951	Ditto	59,951
France	31,418	Ditto	31,418
Sweden	82,647	Ditto	82,647
Total	55,89,140	14,54,620	70,43,760

ALL INDIA.

	S. Rs.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.
Eastern Isles	38,32,246	31,69,957	70,02,203
Arabia, &c.	36,42,219	23,39,896	59,82,115
	Sp. Dol.	Sp. Dol.	Sp. Dol.
China	5,300,000	4,684,370	9,984,470

ALL INDIA.

	S. Rs.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.
Eastern Isles	61,34,217	5,53,282	66,87,499
Arabia, &c.	72,65,673	28,269	72,93,982
	Sp. Dol.	Sp. Dol.	Sp. Dol.
China	17,400,000	55,000	17,455,000

CHAPTER VI.

COMMERCE, MARITIME AND INTERNAL OF BENGAL, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY; TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN, CONTINENTAL EUROPE, AND AMERICA, CHINA, EASTERN ISLANDS, &c.; STAPLES OF INDIA, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THEIR IMPROVEMENT AND DEVELOPEMENT.

THE commerce between Europe and India has ever been considered one of the most important subjects which could engage the attention of a mercantile statesman; and the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere are now anxiously looked forward to as a rich field for the enjoyment of British capital, industry and skill; the result depends on the justice of England towards Hindostan. No two countries could be better adapted by Providence for the blessings of commerce than the parent (or governing) and dependent state; *the one* a small and insulated kingdom in the western ocean, teeming with a hardy, industrious and ingenious population, two-thirds of whom are engaged in manipulating and vending the produce of more genial climes; and from their numbers, compared with the area of habitation, pressing close on national subsistence, while peace and foreign competition are daily excluding them from the monopolized commerce heretofore possessed;—*the other* an almost illimitable territory in the eastern world, connected, though separated by the navigable ocean, rich to overflowing with every bounty with which nature has enriched the earth, and peculiarly so in those agricultural products necessary to the manufactures, comforts and luxuries of the more civilized nation. Heretofore the incalculable blessings to be derived from two countries thus favourably situate, have been wantonly or wickedly or inadvertently neglected; let me hope that a better era is now dawning for England as well as for India,—that the former has now begun to perceive the suicidal folly of beggaring the latter,—the temporary advantages of which are as nought

compared with the permanent injury received as well as inflicted;* and that the merciful dispensations of an all and ever-wise Being who has made the interchange of superfluous or indigenous commodities one of the most powerful instruments for exciting and sharpening the inventive industry of man, and uniting the whole human race in bonds of fraternal connection and christian charity, will no longer be spurned with an apathy or impiety which sooner or later will receive its merited punishment.

I proceed to shew, *first*, the value of the trade of British India generally. *Secondly*, the shipping employed in that trade at each Presidency. *Thirdly*, the importations into Great Britain of Eastern produce; and *fourthly*, the staple products received at each Presidency from the interior,—these preliminaries will enable the European or the non-commercial reader to appreciate the value and magnitude of our Eastern commerce.

* That the feeling against British injustice is becoming daily more prevalent among the Hindoos, is evident from the following petition:—

To the Right Honourable the Lords of His Majesty's Privy Council for Trade, &c. &c.— The humble Petition of the undersigned Manufacturers and Dealers in Cotton and Silk-piece Goods, the Fabric of Bengal.

Sheweth,—That, of late years, your petitioners have found their business nearly superseded by the introduction of the fabrics of Great Britain into Bengal. The importation of which augments every year, to the great prejudice of the native manufacturers.

That the fabrics of Great Britain are consumed in Bengal without any duties being levied thereon to protect the native fabrics.

That the fabrics of Bengal are charged with the following duties, when they are used in Great Britain, viz. on manufactured cottons, ten per cent.; on manufactured silks, twenty per cent.

Your petitioners most humbly implore your lordships' consideration of these circumstances, and they feel confident that no disposition exists in England to shut the door against the industry of any part of the inhabitants of this great empire.

They, therefore, pray to be *admitted to the privileges of British subjects*, and humbly entreat your Lordships to allow the cotton and silk fabrics of Bengal to be used in Great Britain 'free of duty,' or at the same rate which may be charged on British fabrics consumed in Bengal.

Your lordships must be aware of the immense advantages the British manufacturers derive from their skill in constructing and using machinery, which enables them to undersell the unscientific manufacturers of Bengal in their own country; and, although your petitioners are not sanguine in expecting to derive any great advantage from having their prayer granted, their minds would feel gratified by such a manifestation of your lordships' good will towards them; and such an instance of justice to the natives of India, would not fail to endear the British Government to them.

They, therefore, trust that your lordships' righteous consideration will be extended to them as British subjects, without exception of sect, country, or colour.

Value of Imports into Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, from Great Britain, Foreign Europe, and North and South America.

(Madras is not stated in the official returns for 1829-30.)

Years.	FROM GREAT BRITAIN.						
	BY THE EAST-INDIA COMPANY.			BY INDIVIDUALS.			Total Merchandize and Treasure from Great Britain.
	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1811-12	57,54,994	..	57,54,994	77,53,177	24,059	77,77,236	1,35,32,230
1812-13	56,70,112	..	56,70,112	73,70,167	1,69,017	75,39,184	1,32,29,296
1813-14	61,64,334	..	61,64,334	78,99,439	33,850	79,33,289	1,40,97,623
1814-15	59,52,495	..	59,52,495	67,06,282	5,25,127	72,31,409	1,31,83,904
1815-16	55,13,235	..	55,13,235	97,48,847	12,09,271	1,09,58,118	1,64,71,353
1816-17	37,91,894	76,99,554	1,14,91,358	1,25,37,295	22,68,762	1,48,06,057	2,62,97,415
1817-18	34,52,417	9,51,130	44,04,547	2,09,00,608	66,89,290	2,75,89,898	3,19,94,545
1818-19	31,47,752	..	31,47,752	2,21,10,386	1,57,37,614	3,78,48,000	4,09,95,752
1819-20	24,47,527	91,47,961	1,15,95,488	1,33,16,856	73,73,701	2,06,90,557	3,22,86,045
1820-21	45,92,121	15,25,404	61,17,525	1,36,27,903	18,63,779	1,54,91,682	2,16,09,207
1821-22	49,85,888	..	49,85,888	1,96,70,923	19,74,099	2,16,45,022	2,66,30,910
1822-23	33,13,133	..	33,13,133	2,52,01,932	2,53,987	2,54,55,919	2,87,68,152
1823-24	33,00,804	..	33,00,804	2,27,54,864	6,33,402	2,33,88,271	2,66,89,075
1824-25	25,02,123	..	25,02,123	2,32,47,672	39,205	2,32,56,977	2,57,59,080
1825-26	4,91,995	..	4,91,995	1,86,75,982	2,25,519	1,89,01,501	1,93,93,496
1826-27	6,15,062	1,20,666	7,35,728	1,96,44,920	21,028	1,96,66,848	2,04,02,576
1827-28	3,48,312	..	3,48,312	2,94,19,745	81,660	2,95,01,405	2,98,49,649
1828-29	1,51,916	2,46,414	3,98,330	3,31,97,109	26,843	3,32,23,913	3,32,01,763
1829-30	..	..	..	2,50,89,047	4,050	2,50,93,097	2,50,93,097
1830-31	..	..	..	3,30,26,651	10,772	3,30,37,423	3,30,37,423
1831-32	245		245	2,47,82,313	17,42,762	2,59,25,070	2,59,25,315
1832-33							
1833-34							

Years.	FROM FOREIGN EUROPE.			FROM N. AND S. AMERICA.			TOTAL IMPORTS.		
	BY INDIVIDUALS.			BY INDIVIDUALS.					
	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total Merchandize and Treasure.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1811-12	..	..	..	6,45,213	48,02,764	54,47,977	1,41,53,384	48,26,823	1,89,81,207
1812-13	9,38,826	17,15,488	26,49,314	6,57,661	4,99 913	11,57,574	1,46,31,766	23,84,418	1,70,16,184
1813-14	2,41,039	2,625	2,43,664	20,557	1,38,648	1,59,199	1,43,25,363	1,75,123	1,45,00,486
1814-15	4,39,045	7,16,591	11,55,636	6,45,942	11,79,874	12,95,816	1,37,13,764	24,21,593	1,61,35,356
1815-16	4,11,276	42,03,337	46,14,613	6,22,424	71,38,052	77,60,476	1,62,95,782	1,25,59,660	2,88,46,442
1816-17	6,63,148	75,93,508	82,44,656	14,55,973	1,02,00,593	1,16,56,566	1,84,48,229	2,77,50,417	4,61,98,637
1817-18	13,17,885	35,76,598	48,94,483	19,07,477	1,03,16,990	1,22,24,467	2,75,79,387	2,15,34,108	4,91,13,495
1818-19	11,94,739	57,80,537	69,75,276	11,09,051	1,61,12,148	1,72,21,199	2,76,61,928	3,76,38,299	6,51,92,227
1819-20	6,27,636	30,31,435	36,59,071	10,55,819	72,74,725	83,30,594	1,74,47,838	2,68,27,622	4,42,75,710
1820-21	6,19,582	36,33,100	42,52,682	12,57,620	51,75,561	64,33,181	2,00,97,225	3,21,97,844	3,22,95,070
1821-22	8,34,629	37,30,992	45,65,612	13,44,703	75,29,178	88,73,881	2,68,36,134	1,32,34,269	4,00,70,403
1822-23	14,34,599	33,98,358	45,32,957	8,45,149	64,05,373	72,50,522	3,04,94,813	1,00,56,818	4,05,51,631
1823-24	3,80,151	..	3,80,151	12,91,894	48,45,059	61,36,863	2,77,27,623	54,78,466	3,32,06,089
1824-25	16,30,107	4,54,877	20,84,984	14,20,596	50,31,089	64,41,685	2,87,70,498	55,15,171	3,42,85,669
1825-26	12,71,888	5,05,254	17,77,142	8,77,653	47,70,857	56,48,510	2,13,17,518	55,01,630	2,68,19,148
1826-27	17,70,660	6,48,172	24,18,832	5,23,211	23,82,763	29,05,974	2,25,33,853	31,73,529	2,57,27,382
1827-28	24,38,649	10,56,044	31,94,653	8,73,391	28,77,765	37,51,666	3,30,80,007	10,15,499	3,76,95,436
1828-29	32,61,763	4,94,816	37,56,579	7,59,666	17,85,689	25,45,357	3,73,70,447	25,53,762	3,99,24,209
1829-30	19,76,409	38,164	20,14,573	12,83,553	12,48,858	25,24,411	2,83,49,669	2,83,072	2,86,32,881
1830-31	14,64,943	8,800	14,73,743	18,43,358	9,49,649	27,84,007	3,63,35,072	9,60,221	3,72,95,293
1831-32	6,96,255	5,625	7,01,880	10,94,454	9,49,477	10,43,931	3,03,77,862	9,56,152	3,13,34,014
1832-33									
1833-34									

Value of Exports from Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, to Great Britain, Foreign Europe, and North and South America.

(Madras is not stated in the official returns for 1829-30.)

TO GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	BY THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.			BY INDIVIDUALS.			Total. Merchandize and Treasure to Great Britain.
	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1811-12	1,09,76,583	..	1,09,76,583	1,01,54,084	9,61,682	1,11,15,766	2,20,92,349
1812-13	1,68,72,914	..	1,68,72,914	82,94,122	4,53,670	87,47,792	2,56,20,706
1813-14	1,37,65,140	..	1,37,65,140	1,37,09,832	18,54,302	1,55,64,134	2,93,29,274
1814-15	91,26,749	..	91,26,749	1,64,08,364	22,054	1,64,30,418	2,55,57,167
1815-16	94,22,455	..	94,22,455	2,08,66,699	8,813	2,08,75,512	3,02,97,967
1816-17	91,79,850	..	91,79,850	1,69,85,509	..	1,69,85,509	2,61,65,359
1817-18	1,29,66,102	..	1,29,66,102	2,29,53,470	..	2,29,53,470	3,58,59,572
1818-19	1,00,48,103	..	1,00,48,103	2,38,29,620	..	2,38,29,620	3,38,77,723
1819-20	1,32,55,401	..	1,32,55,401	1,96,50,440	2,500	1,96,52,940	3,29,08,341
1820-21	1,30,87,678	..	1,30,87,678	1,35,50,627	4,106	1,35,54,733	2,66,42,411
1821-22	1,09,23,090	1,10,00,000	2,19,23,090	1,34,97,207	2,93,222	1,37,90,429	3,57,13,519
1822-23	1,28,68,743	30,34,660	1,59,03,403	1,94,46,727	72,796	1,95,19,523	3,54,22,926
1823-24	1,02,02,378	1,02,04,102	2,04,06,480	2,04,79,980	17,98,022	2,22,78,002	4,26,84,482
1824-25	1,39,42,574	..	1,39,42,574	2,21,58,013	10,04,045	2,31,62,058	3,71,04,632
1825-26	1,36,98,993	..	1,36,98,993	2,66,39,563	80,261	2,67,12,824	4,04,18,817
1826-27	1,55,88,206	..	1,55,88,286	1,59,10,819	11,13,177	1,70,23,996	3,26,12,202
1827-28	1,75,37,150	34,58,720	2,09,95,870	2,08,80,224	49,48,050	2,58,28,274	4,68,24,144
1828-29	1,41,26,165	..	1,41,26,165	2,20,94,580	33,65,238	2,54,59,818	3,95,85,983
1829-30	1,73,87,613	..	1,73,87,613	1,49,13,532	28,48,492	1,77,62,024	3,51,49,637
1830-31	1,25,72,467	..	..	1,89,39,538	50,71,758	2,40,11,296	3,52,16,961
1831-32	1,00,73,764	91,39,815	1,92,13,579	1,90,58,177	69,76,877	2,60,35,054	4,52,48,617
1832-33							
1833-34							

Years.	TO FOREIGN EUROPE. BY INDIVIDUALS.			TO N. AND S. AMERICA. BY INDIVIDUALS.			TOTAL EXPORTS.		
	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total Merchandize and Treasure.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1811-12	..	..	..	66,66,074	..	66,66,074	2,77,36,741	9,61,682	2,86,98,423
1812-13	42,07,818	..	42,07,818	17,82,507	..	17,82,507	3,11,57,361	4,53,670	3,16,11,031
1813-14	10,34,342	..	10,34,342	3,31,171	..	3,31,171	2,88,40,485	18,54,302	3,06,94,787
1814-15	18,02,847	..	18,02,847	17,99,104	..	17,99,104	2,91,37,064	22,054	2,91,59,118
1815-16	33,55,375	..	33,55,375	70,69,362	6,300	70,75,662	4,07,13,891	15,113	4,07,29,004
1816-17	67,68,508	..	67,68,508	93,59,573	29,168	92,88,741	4,22,93,4[illegible]	29,168	4,23,22,608
1817-18	47,09,633	..	47,09,633	93,93,827	..	93,93,827	4,99,63,032	..	4,99,63,032
1818-19	52,62,251	6,630	52,68,881	1,07,08,407	..	1,07,08,407	4,98,48,381	6,630	4,98,55,011
1819-20	35,72,298	..	35,72,298	69,30,872	..	69,30,872	4,34,09,011	2,500	4,34,11,511
1820-21	38,56,834	77,700	39,34,534	49,44,215	..	49,44,215	3,54,39,354	81,806	3,55,21,160
1821-22	18,29,628	..	18,29,628	58,25,131	49,500	58,74,631	3,20,66,056	1,13,42,722	4,34,08,778
1822-23	49,27,696	22,800	48,50,496	41,60,505	..	41,60,505	4,18,03,671	31,30,256	4,44,33,927
1823-24	3,45,772	..	3,45,772	30,61,415	..	30,61,415	3,40,89,545	1,26,02,124	4,60,91,669
1824-25	19,51,980	19,000	19,76,930	34,50,585	..	34,50,585	4,15,03,102	10,23,845	4,25,26,147
1825-26	23,93,635	8,800	24,02,435	30,79,940	4,000	30,83,940	4,68,12,131	93,861	4,59,65,192
1826-27	21,86,321	2,625	21,88,946	11,30,909	..	11,30,909	3,48,16,255	11,15,802	3,59,32,057
1827-28	32,96,663	61,210	33,57,873	24,63,842	..	24,63,842	4,41,77,879	84,67,980	5,26,45,859
1828-29	28,61,825	..	28,87,825	23,53,717	..	23,53,717	4,14,36,287	33,65,238	4,48,01,525
1829-30	25,29,437	..	25,29,437	20,25,318	11,250	20,36,568	3,68,55,900	28,59,742	3,97,15,642
1830-31	22,17,361	3,000	22,26,361	23,18,755	..	23,18,755	3,71,53,121	50,74,758	4,23,17,879
1831-32	19,14,478	..	19,14,478	36,02,336	..	36,02,336	3,46,39,755	1,61,16,692	5,07,75,447
1832-33									
1833-34									

The shipping of each Presidency was as follows:—

Total Number of Ships and Tonnage entering the Port of Calcutta, from 1795-96.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1795	170	57696	1809	168	63151	1823	228	87524
1796	172	63924	1810	200	69179	1824	274	111641
1797	139	52464	1811	225	87124	1825	244	97281
1798	121	43349	1812	226	84228	1826	245	97067
1799	145	47403	1813	222	77192	1827	304	111233
1800	170	54759	1814	200	68928	1828	278	110214
1801	153	52944	1815	291	94966	1829	236	89655
1802	215	81293	1816	369	142696	1830	292	102589
1803	577	65027	1817	428	161346	1831		
1804	185	69557	1818	395	157441	1832		
1805	210	82814	1819	273	103553	1833		
1806	245	92652	1820	261	104932	1834		
1807	194	72544	1821	261	102864			
1808	151	50545	1822	286	116641			

Shipping Inwards at Port St. George, or Madras, and its Subordinate Ports.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1802*	88	38342	1813	1063	82682	1824	1490	101355
1803*	103	44622	1814	1082	74354	1825	1730	106905
1804*	92	39367	1815	1021	92934	1826	1874	118344
1805*	258	54412	1816	939	84025	1827	1918	109539
1806*	251	52645	1817	1160	90789	1828	2255	113790
1807	2045	110009	1818	1066	88113	1829	2239	110578
1808	2478	119378	1819	1060	75542	1830		
1809	2453	123224	1820	1092	77666	1831		
1810	2251	109588	1821	1148	87074	1832		
1811	1060	85469	1822	1173	97329	1833		
1812	936	76497	1823	1885	96781	1834		

Shipping Inwards at Bombay, Surat, &c.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1802	83	33155	1813	72	25245	1824	116	47021
1803	78	29136	1814	76	32584	1825	107	45605
1804	74	29694	1815	84	33280	1826	117	44729
1805	84	36822	1816	106	43800	1827	152	61241
1806	No Returns.		1817	139	59804	1828	173	71344
1807	82	37069	1818	158	65409	1829	152	63548
1808	77	26931	1819	145	61246	1830		
1809	78	34300	1820	111	46700	1831		
1810	93	30847	1821	123	54292	1832		
1811	82	29252	1822	120	48118	1833		
1812	85	30481	1823	116	48180	1834		

The staple exports of India may be in some degree estimated by the following:—

* From 1802 to 1806 the returns exhibit Fort St. George only.

Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China).

Years.	Aloes.	Assafœtida.	Benjamin.	Borax.	Camphire, unrefined	Canes, viz. Rattans, (not ground.)	Cardamoms.	Cassia Buds.	Cassia Lignea.	Cinnamon.	Cloves.	Coffee.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	No.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1814	27966	97020	30070	60561	218754	1216229	31977	..	173988	276982	262201	7944445
1815	71854	40869	52517	243993	278866	4065888	80711	1046	212181	381596	781546	26505674
1816	70748	13474	139284	442841	231296	4772775	60127	24405	833324	416656	378114	15717420
1817	70391	14139	54170	120732	178656	2866562	9999	2986	443891	391849	286620	13557095
1818	100510	28027	91564	276945	218356	1601727	28577	..	182411	562680	10344	2045485
1819	72772	70532	145137	769132	99092	1629240	47454	6073	314762	392244	2799	4107727
1820	26995	71517	152160	966981	136879	1212758	61715	19878	173504	383494	6246	5497731
1821	30696	80021	69535	250814	107465	356068?	51968	30651	368952	417362	11094	1904021
1822	31574	69929	104234	93687	4166	494950	48501	32114	272869	121627	93192	4476785
1823	9937	78153	144886	333166	128541	2204199	68518	37731	274574	899373	132044	4114289
1824	23370	111045	46005	557184	471435	1023320	2924	106438	639184	381023	382134	5760912
1825	13055	106779	26896	37540	105228	338112	11572	37498	481062	5389731	29276	4085048
1826	7466	39011	5443	292482	29006	1475174	11235	63355	528090	155930	266098	5519804
1827	23803	55396	19677	51197	133116	3159641	353	31106	415703	1267443	226363	5872097
1828	53852	50675	62467	52837	373428	6891321	9073	22028	549632	337482	467596	7364376
1829	59779	25497	19207	153271	438479	7289611	31948	85944	814259	543933	36051	6335257
1830	50065	8729	27428	173642	273582	2414562	41036	80758	831296	449656	3198	7025799
1831	20305	892	83679	188241	106979	3906423	72800	171720	392789	222991	124667	7656366
1832	31684	13731	92493	450295	208734	3922355	67281	75173	996368	25738	224644	10407837
1833	23455		185953	96459	359654	1457877	100277	42556	1297708	101222	100579	6195118
1834	32429	47819	131679	232022	28691	2353466	61849	10396	1939778	216679	135533	9907529

Years.	Cotton Piece Goods.			Cotton Wool.	Dye and Hard Woods.		Elephants' Teeth.	Galls.	Ginger.	Gum.			
	White Calicoes and Muslins.	Dyed Cottons & Grass Cloths.	Nanquin Cloths.		Ebony.	Red Saunders.				Animi and Copal.	Arabic.	Lacdye, Lacklake and Cakelac.	Shellac and Seedlac.
	pieces	pieces	pieces	pounds.	tons.	tons.	cwts.	cwt.	cwts.	lbs.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.
1814	967652	296956	20894	2856319	234	910	2	74	..	48725	1978	278899	110670
1815	994654	219077	25024	7175243	296	1116	398	96	2615	86017	1268	598592	575629
1816	978254	152022	30978	6972790	188	704	182	724	8455	35174	475	369080	587153
1817	767439	165982	20	31007570	447	639	295	388	15465	92231	583	384989	653256
1818	858884	244254	14925	6745414	324	717	1	29	27542	99308	1099	242387	839977
1819	629022	269743	21821	58856261	115	732	166	414	20551	98667	3489	178088	531549
1820	411779	252938	130289	23125825	42	266	559	7	21933	336745	2572	439439	845369
1821	275352	259143	252724	8827107	14	22	660	129	13276	208313	4034	649864	718063
1822	100938	137284	56472	4554225	24	34	384	573	3139	95136	3485	872967	282621
1823	266778	131695	163953	14839147	20	55	815	1496	3527	196164	5396	525231	366321
1824	274152	154728	624442	16120985	..	88	2145	3203	1807	381638	6935	592197	571694
1825	351817	142580	257622	20294262	102	65	2573	2815	718	230267	6462	535505	708687
1826	358820	280798	385042	21187900	140	233	1623	3775	4784	86635	12057	768729	443589
1827	276888	190531	81965	21364804	298	93	1261	2130	1173	139846	5157	729242	499813
1828	293848	218656	274156	32339382	261	...	910	1394	6741	161226	1224	689205	681271
1829	296675	178388	276669	24924416	419	150	1291	735	4917	234908	3746	590721	725780
1830	171223	252503	573581	12512889	1391	14	1602	1561	1269	55651	1962	485269	649636
1831	17367	166838	854071	25813573	111	65	2173	1031	850	190274	2489	753252	1146128
1832	79099	227226	195807	35219564	70	149	1010	867	2589	155290	2693	459379	1070261
													Shellac only.
1833	30219	194896	45718	32793072	57	553	1998	45	10049	211916	4471	299405	770544
1834	76122	129992	62352	32924731	66	1035	2461	499	10004	218631	7348	701116	942527

Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China)—*continued.*

Years.	Gum. Sticklac.	Hemp, &c.	Hides (Untanned.)		Indigo.	Mace.	Madder Root, or Munjeet.	Mother o'Pearl Shells (Rough).	Musk.	Nutmegs.	Castor Oil.	Oil of Cocoa-nut.
	lbs.	cwts.	Nos.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.	cwts.	lbs.	oz.	lbs.	lbs.	cwts.
1814	44439	30937	292		6752302	104815	1219	..	..	322134	68892	393
1815	32677	9950	10082		5543222	256359	1394	90256	..	743563	54772	150
1816	4200	1117	6204		7238114	38825	44	4507	5709	365546	59477	399
1817	254005	28	4682		4926105	80952	1123	..	5	361626	69553	551
1818	562051	4418	1035		5456645	8924	2710	..	16	59557	102975	1503
1819	40478	5594	6490		3688694	21	3631	22393	14933	192593	139859	2193
1820	342340	5146	4968		4922750	5887	4225	140239	16388	89013	373832	8063
1821	58880	93	13376		3935833	13893	3830	143468	10451	35081	283661	8160
1822	18429	536	15354		2483475	16831	1292	142089	6616	45568	293461	1728
1823	15517	5282	193944	& 8807	6553354	4773	2839	333210	8869	14516	95904	1664
1824	427	8951		11729	4584969	28519	4023	292029	5124	81197	296937	4
1825	13521	3822		6379	6056753	53840	1825	264748	341	80033	235941	1534
1826	90396	6329		2375	7673710	166692	2260	269870	1225	338708	247122	913
1827	8835	14799		1111	5405212	22792	882	279152	1145	69307	139646	1469
1828	..	13472		3322	9683626	42132	820	320481	5062	58115	451237	2049
1829	..	26430		3695	5980242	8853	2135	484667	449	37922	301488	3247
1830	37595	14130		5164	7926857	12963	992	165591	3320	45059	441275	6184
1831	149144	11785		3376	7005246	40921	2571	510492	3447	110039	343373	3535
1832	319373	64950		10739	6211895	72622	334	721522	8129	223426	257387	10660
1833	161116	34109		38774	6337353	11447	2966	708166	8556	40327	316785	8272
1834	61069	55011		42716	3616509	27765	3412	611025	4804	54201	685468	8732

Years.	Oil of Mace and Nutmegs.	Olibanum.	Pepper of all sorts.	Rhubarb.	Rice not in the Husk.	Rice in the Husk.	Safflower.	Sago.	Saltpetre.	Senna.	Silk; Raw, Waste, and Floss.
	lbs. oz.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.
1814	55 12	98	5762649	..	134059	..	843	366	146512	2509	965414
1815	252 14	371	12719658	2435	21180	..	2294	1795	146487	25827	863608
1816	389 2	325	11985014	34832	2164	..	2314	6490	166665	115696	880574
1817	6016 12	314	4087062	1158	68436	..	1689	4929	158822	25083	567688
1818	8544 4	640	6134721	24984	329032	..	657	7727	124631	28045	1011645
1819	1 4	1221	5300643	59690	374192	758	427	10659	137319	27635	970482
1820	..	1465	787947	146862	192923	2088	781	9167	196669	68607	1206722
1821	12 1	1254	845100	115264	78798	775	2026	3617	224843	127274	1160668
1822	69 12	364	7211376	46893	12868	255	3403	100	133166	68080	924222
1823	5 2	766	5955326	42683	30566	89	6730	1232	151930	48475	1331750
1824	112 ..	1834	8801634	44488	24771	bush. 501	5740	3881	154749	71054	1105170
1825	11309 12	2303	5396217	44805	18081	768	5102	4261	96687	59728	996239
1826	5809 5	1762	13103446	83088	50044	1278	6429	9635	131069	69767	1620269
1827	3263 12	138	9067766	82431	104337	9405	2381	9486	201084	74801	1122392
1828	1784 7	2209	4978102	51375	140276	37904	1398	5298	204836	107153	1234654
1829	219 ..	4672	2096579	127443	192366	61835	2639	446	176503	105619	2116596
1830	466 ..	4181	2742224	157211	125487	21948	2170	2661	143702	176693	1736231
1831	651 ..	761	6128240	133462	133887	38543	2436	2253	170722	200990	1725650
1832	264 ..	3306	4036475	115237	171560	19744	5556	3377	229538	464917	1814819
1833	..	2571	8714063	114314	199928	12581	6372	7669	143435	400933	989618
1834	..	7486	7624032	16190	307702	25270	6484	25726	257715	412283	1825370

Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China)—*continued.*

Years.	Silk Manufactures, viz.				Soap.	Spirits, viz. Arrack.	Sugar (unrefined.)*	Tin.	Tortoiseshell (Rough.)	Turmeric.	Vermillion.	Other Articles.
	Bandannoes, Handkerchiefs, and Romals.	Crape in Pieces.	Crape: Shawls, Scarfs, Gown Pieces, & Handkerchiefs.	Taffaties & other Silks in Pieces.								
	pieces	pieces	No.	pieces	cwts.	imp. gal.	cwts.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	val. £
1814	71502	..	..	31115	..	38554	43789	..	3775	535642	4892	76150
1815	131279	5	..	31692	..	4848	124292	2113	7344	1289760	..	73883
1816	130216	66	..	9679	287	24091	126246	5491	10510	725810	3768	79003
1817	97232	17	4	18457	..	81927	123368	2400	4823	581603	..	91947
1818	73670	61	..	16707	108	111835	162386	1398	8766	765654	1752	99583
1819	48248	11	24	16484	127	62856	202778	299	4713	547353	4040	101801
1820	126593	..	254	10047	132	141384	277204	828	9017	914853	28832	147215
1821	85279	345	3196	10054	803	2570	269143	..	8130	415555	47440	108043
1822	161651	208	306	7948	5016	218	209959	1285	10347	197557	63	74420
1823	142317	36	166	3659	20346	4092	219576	5050	11606	10997	2778	115499
1824	131096	25	679	4760	11085	145	267912	6377	20236	521750	2504	122700
1825	101830	160	2128	5096	588	1661	244062	1173	20713	98567	..	109314
1826	238586	3194	20500	8824	62	645	342847	3000	25332	452001	..	112486
1827	224896	651	4621	6951	6	252	380181	705	16407	570213	8668	116282
1828	160536	135	5952	5745	624	4247	516831	1806	27361	842304	42811	120053
1829	95849	..	16985	6697	..	22108	497109	1863	34418	1111068	243	182336
1830	124270	513	23711	8529	11	41418	770087	14574	32189	1867764	..	208885
1831	184398	932	17740	7368	1	7911	750448†	5472	30902	1292028	10023	203460
1832	211887	..	11469	4525	..	20591	703137‡	26642	30004	1004045	1926	208719
1833	293237	..	4904	1220	74	21139	732318	28653	35963	582064	25185	..
1834	374744	4	..	490	..	12251	695163	34757	40860	864810	7585	..

Total Value of the Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China), according to the Prices at the East India Company's Sales in the respective Years.

Years.	£.	Years.	£.	Years.	£.
1814	3643275	1821	4775146	1828	7065180
1815	8136167	1822	3713663	1829	6218284
1816	6429785	1823	5932051	1830	5679071
1817	6365586	1824	5605100	1831	5729810
1818	6006147	1825	6178775	1832	6337098
1819	6615768	1826	6730926	1833	
1820	5958526	1827	5681017	1834	

The increased commerce may in some degree be judged of from the following:—

* Including Mauritius.

† Of this £516,077 was Mauritius.

‡ Of this £527,904 was Mauritius; £524,017 Mauritius sugar, 1833; £553,890 ditto, 1834.

The Quantity, or, in cases where Quantity could not be ascertained, the Value of each Article of Indian Production or Manufacture at the Port of Calcutta, from the Interior of the Presidency of Bengal, so far as the same can be ascertained.

Years.	Betle Nuts.	Carpets and Blankets.	Chunam.	Cotton.	Cotton Thread.	Elephants' Teeth.	Ghee.	Ginger.
	cwt.	pieces.	cwt.	cwt.	lbs.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.
1812–13	30479	..	308944	75086	..	49	7571	..
1813–14	50573	..	407965	265883	..	130	6677	..
1814–15	24969	..	406401	259679	..	89	4015	..
1815–16	17821	..	457056	303607	..	218	3921	..
1816–17	19087	..	460360	535897	..	115	6792	..
1817–18	20088	..	360300	783411	..	55	9430	..
1818–19	22891	..	294919	524993	..	94	18094	..
1819–20	19155	..	469715	235692	..	264	20567	..
1820–21	27123	..	408537	282197	..	140	22383	..
1821–22	38972	..	528819	287768	..	112	19973	..
1822–23	39793	..	494424	158167	..	122	19938	..
1823–24	53237	51260	579784	132386	129294	132	21451	3435
1824–25	51609	57273	456368	283113	160830	109	17663	..
1825–26	47006	39210	351970	178687	336692	92	16757	..
1826–27	46677	66798	572494	336175	110298	144	21820	5918
1827–28	61549	51611	566832	235047	64452	121	22710	11674
1828–29	58017	63455	556433	219683	29110	148	17558	9374
1829–30	52010	63919	507897	202974	24272	134	14826	4884
1830–31								
1831–32								
1832–33								
1833–34								

Years.	Grain of Sorts.	Gunnies and Gunny Bags.	Indigo.	Jagree.	Lac of Sorts.	Long Pepper and Roots.	Oil.	Oil, Castor.
	cwt.	pieces.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.
1812–13	187590	4334288	49475	..	13125	..	8499	..
1813–14	153837	4380504	50096	..	9364	..	7546	..
1814–15	104896	4157789	68746	..	2301	..	3399	..
1815–16	96375	3921388	76661	..	21880	..	820	..
1816–17	164407	3869091	58580	..	24290	..	5439	..
1817–18	205490	5743005	48732	..	16205	..	6180	..
1818–19	373256	4638359	45612	..	9792	..	10015	..
1819–20	358833	8116541	70932	..	17039	..	11178	..
1820–21	528453	5443120	51066	..	21112	..	6845	..
1821–22	577042	3948987	62175	..	9927	..	5849	..
1822–23	681400	3228451	75405	86738	5986	..	8681	..
1823–24	487431	2082719	53782	85289	9696	3086	7790	2508
1824–25	603214	2227854	73812	112073	12027	2138	14250	3547
1825–26	935106	1411438	104831	58108	7571	2701	13281	6816
1826–27	378425	5006818	53355	78388	9521	6750	10439	1639
1827–28	558477	5031133	101584	116675	9586	10736	9255	1268
1828–29	577449	5016114	65631	224081	11283	6672	15239	3706
1829–30	530830	5238142	89026	205652	14596	4002	11012	4315
1830–31								
1831–32								
1832–33								
1833–34								

Quantity or Value of Articles of Indian Production or Manufacture received at Calcutta, from the Interior of the Presidency of Bengal—*continued.*

Years.	Oil Seeds.	Opium.	Piece Goods.			Safflower.	Saltpetre.	Shawls.
			Cotton.	Silk.	Embroidered.			
	cwt.	chests.	pieces.	pieces.	pieces.	cwt.	cwt.	pieces.
1812-13	—.	..	4000954	..	..	3079	17899	5226
1813-14	241796	..	2779579	..	..	1227	34335	5456
1814-15	216533	..	3451685	..	..	3018	62403	2803
1815-16	125326	..	5588766	..	..	4666	99808	3309
1816-17	196832	..	7868791	..	..	2028	196587	2478
1817-18	275725	..	5797079	..	..	2350	127315	4925
1818-19	345688	..	4175171	..	..	1202	133873	2546
1819-20	292470	4069	4622433	364530	..	1097	349679	4773
1820-21	278827	4309	3586330	377172	..	2862	302809	4883
1821-22	263518	3158	3934953	559259	..	4838	259717	5609
1822-23	313672	3986	3977034	599225	..	8417	198871	4108
1823-24	289332	3367	3781144	468336	2222	7638	286708	5830
1824-25	305742	7390	2440833	564864	2064	7625	189938	4518
1825-26	132444	5310	3431109	480504	15225	4296	158896	3787
1826-27	195462	6788	2627231	455439	3731	3177	315563	4028
1827-28	194191	6350	1872518	454828	1679	3692	224902	3994
1828-29	330431	7709	1698803	456714	853	2949	258638	2383
1829-30	367249	8778	1334395	406265	928	2299	235712	2761
1830-31								
1831-32								
1832-33								
1833-34								

Years.	Silk.	Sugar.	Sugar-candy.	Tincal and Borax.	Tobacco.	Turmeric.	Wax and Wax Candles.
	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.
1812-13	7996	120180	2449	..	16493	8236	1367
1813-14	5333	120049	1909	..	12605	15864	1196
1814-15	11244	197624	2515	..	4919	9643	1145
1815-16	9012	159433	2289	..	8233	8875	1085
1816-17	5681	311753	1761	..	15542	10808	1353
1817-18	6861	345279	1430	..	32859	15262	1468
1818-19	5887	447370	3477	..	40396	15020	1232
1819-20	13929	469563	1844	9288	41670	25053	1412
1820-21	17165	331408	1916	4291	74695	8161	2121
1821-22	13634	333914	2920	2525	133486	7105	2158
1822-23	12456	293508	2706	5538	107872	10842	1881
1823-24	11592	237600	3844	3869	98848	14265	2024
1824-25	14839	342648	4601	3503	125236	11083	1413
1825-26	14737	199544	4295	1238	72775	10061	842
1826-27	12724	320600	4920	2524	94159	11732	1201
1827-28	12654	197702	3348	1582	93616	18794	1194
1828-29	17997	389669	6593	1853	137035	26527	1057
1829-30	13054	366239	4181	1855	166655	19089	1141
1830-31							
1831-32							
1832-33							
1833-34							

The Quantity, or, in cases where Quantity could not be ascertained, the Value of each Article of Indian Production or Manufacture received at the Port of Madras, from the Interior of the Presidency of Fort St. George, so far as the same can be complied with.

Years.	Beetle Nuts.	Beetle Leaf.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Cotton Thread.	Indigo.	Fruits.		Paddy.	Rice.	Wheat.	Grain of Sorts.	Gunnies.	Hides and Skins.
							Cocoa Nuts.	Tamarinds.						
	cwt	bundles.	cwt	cwt.	bgs.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	pieces	Nos.
1824-25	8369	1341868	105	..	..	3425	161314	28288	78653	14524	1879	8742	2262	37985
1825-26	7903	1600994	211	1910	1155	3555	126701	26535	211912	83788	3496	44171	10710	34124
1826-27	8258	1543265	234	15478	3046	3672	156880	24965	234509	116918	2120	51388	1846	66044
1827-28	7235	1350735	252	1252	2551	6785	327580	29760	335666	192910	1873	29582	6837	117843
1828-29	6791	1402944	..	1256	3022	7930	118101	32555	369572	276101	1599	44423	7321	94350
1829-30	6837	1253883	159	91	2491	6293	190495	24770	343130	176915	2899	43737	2731	62375
1830-31	9321	1508351	..	591	1861	3185	369827	28427	192281	239577	4892	97303	3570	68592
1831-32														
1832-33														
1833-34														

Years.	Jagree.	Oils of Sorts.	Oil Seeds.	Opium.	Opium Milk.	Paper.	Piece Goods.							
							Blue Cloth.	Cambrics.	Clouts of Sorts.	Dorias and Dowties.	Ginghams.	Handkerchiefs of Sorts.	Long Cloth.	Muslins of Sorts.
	Cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt	cwt	quires	pieces	pcs.	pieces	pieces	pieces	pieces	pcs.	pieces
1824-25	14050	13512	3747	12	38	64952	21862	..	179364	110235	16558	128953	869	74061
1825-26	11235	22045	14813	5	39	45833	18879	2137	183466	123612	3898	100396	457	35561
1826-27	9875	21588	15904	7	93	57988	50557	2213	219353	143848	2294	60076	708	41053
1827-28	9603	25145	12402	1	79	60303	4422	501	166189	140133	3768	106050	928	35342
1828-29	12095	22087	7591	6	78	43527	58812	..	244551	164779	3828	120628	198	43535
1829-30	14316	23412	9261	9	100	44510	81356	1482	190199	132890	1810	160448	212	34410
1830-31	15341	28211	16675	10	86	37770	78880	427	200827	141627	3931	90542	184	45567
1831-32														
1832-33														
1833-34														

Years.	Piece Goods.							Piece Goods (Silk) of Sorts.	Ghee.	Snuff.	Sugar.	Tobacco.	Turmeric.	Wax.
	Palampores.	Rumals of Sorts.	Salampores.	Sashes.	Turbans of Sorts.	Piece Goods of Sorts.	Total.							
	pieces	pcs.	pieces	pcs.	pieces	pieces	pieces.	pieces	cwt.	doz.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt	cwt
1824-25	63076	..	15374	..	25581	371991	1010975	5749	15721	3329	7322	12527	1382	248
1825-26	7790	3723	27728	6762	32208	306288	852905	8612	18084	1564	6630	11826	1283	311
1826-27	6678	2779	21002	7534	41749	303532	903379	11652	18087	1883	6211	14078	1442	272
1827-28	7298	2272	78238	4547	35369	331152	916209	10479	20628	864	6035	13017	1593	334
1828-29	5716	7128	39155	8632	46895	393571	1137428	16378	21287	693	8487	12922	1324	469
1829-30	8004	5468	53740	7077	39777	318131	1035004	20176	77484	1213	9072	12546	956	321
1830-31	5388	3824	70039	5729	23927	249380	920272	9981	20331	755	10749	12672	1316	171
1831-32														
1832-33														
1833-34														

The Quantity, or in cases where Quantity could not be ascertained, the Value of each Article of Foreign Production or Manufacture (including the Productions and Manufactures of the United Kingdom), sent into the Interior of the Presidency of Bengal, from the Port of Calcutta, in each year, so far as the same can be complied with.

Years.	Alum.	Broad Cloth.	COTTON.			METALS.								SPICES.		ARTICLES of which the VALUE only is given.			
			Yarn.	Twist.	Mule Twist.	Brass and Brass Ware.	Copper.	Iron.	Lead.	Quicksilver.	Spelter.	Steel.	Tin.	Various.	Pepper.	Chanks.	Liquors.	Piece Goods. (Foreign.)	Sundries. (Europe.)
	Cwt.	Pieces	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Sa. Rs.	Sa. Rs.	Ss. Rs.	Sa. Rs.
1811	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1812	..	..	..	..	..	..	7006	14488	6251	295	12048	325	7290	..	20233	310313	522536	..	4204637
1813	..	3381	..	..	..	..	9709	2960	7350	494	13978	287	6809	740	19870	183120	572010	..	4185749
1814	..	4635	..	..	..	..	29952	5425	9755	475	16538	774	5669	537	2060	135688	594622	..	4239379
1815	..	3908	..	..	..	..	37954	9477	5788	358	13232	731	14317	970	16778	223140	564118	..	5564674
1816	..	3707	..	..	..	..	30075	15574	13624	1458	37929	915	3487	1258	9788	162975	531572	..	6034645
1817	..	2355	..	..	..	..	26196	19970	36038	1474	28806	1883	9121	1224	13139	101391	367129	..	7342718
1818	..	5633	..	..	..	1938	47748	15857	30583	2498	21200	1569	7320	2401	13047	143496	209884	..	9390228
1819	..	9244	..	..	..	2914	46684	35535	5021	598	27318	603	6921	949	12945	278867	260494	..	6778241
1820	..	5546	..	..	..	7313	31903	26942	11247	836	16799	2306	13792	1155	19395	81369	303824	..	10519205
1821	..	7590	..	..	..	5931	26265	25591	6618	594	25040	2919	6532	1941	13034	116019	462357	..	10102500
1822	..	5108	..	..	..	1827	41668	29801	4788	369	28172	737	5395	737	15449	114036	301292	..	10767713
1823	7806	7346	..	..	..	38	39622	30055	5740	554	31621	2424	6185	2047	23108	245937	224397	644496	9921645
1824	5440	5401	..	..	..	73	30647	25290	2112	328	74256	6367	3736	1253	10966	108386	142235	430302	11004260
1825	54530	13981	..	..	..	53	17453	219020	2858	812	93699	1458	11507	7662	465968	735454	560583	1580762	6242826
1826	15268	9629	..	..	..	426	10541	34284	5751	419	47944	700	10933	904	24517	165662	805950	1784811	4231720
1827	..	5430	82738	432878	339236	918	53666	52562	13507	169	86463	566	6044	2986	20042	182877	411423	2961772	6255501
1828	4132	7609	149076	642306	464775	..	39582	65664	16042	..	67388	470	11267	2530	18439	95329	313110	2358377	5904845
1829	13385	11838	98154	398930	918646	..	35948	54087	13042	954	55004	1321	5516	4595	21214	74527	266166	1972906	5391205
1830	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1831																			
1832																			
1833																			
1834																			

The Quantity, or in cases where Quantity could not be ascertained, the Value of each article of Foreign Production or Manufacture (including the Productions and Manufactures of the United Kingdom), sent into the Interior of the Presidency of Fort St. George from the Port of Madras, in each year, so far as the same can be complied with.

Years.	Metals.					Earthenware.	Glassware.	Liquors—Malt.		Long Cloth.	Muslin.	Piece Goods, of Sorts.	Nankeens.	Satin.
	Brass.	Copper.	Lead.	Tin.	Tutenague.			Ale.	Beer.					
	cwt	cwt	cwt	cwt	cwt	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.
1824	..	1960	86	291	1921	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1825	95	820	459	..	1712	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1826	111	491	582	..	769	1831	8595	..	43582	..	3429	9037	8836	3127
1827	144	1365	142	671	1542	5092	18770	..	61280	4704	9418	5369	10316	6372
1828	238	1267	109	473	3224	6127	13325	6352	72570	3802	7891	9581	3245	5937
1829	67	967	164	764	4676	3019	9642	7782	66298	3482	5981	4747	3336	8538
1830	83	1544	155	621	1428	3088	10326	1805	32331	..	2242	11216	5979	5778
1831														
1832														
1833														
1834														

STAPLES OF BRITISH INDIA.—The products of Hindostan, as may be seen from the foregoing, are as various as they are valuable; I begin with one of its principal staples.

Indigo, from time immemorial, has been cultivated and manufactured in Hindostan, and in 1665 it was one of the exports from India to England; the E. I. Company's servants turned their attention to it about 40 years ago, and its successful prosecution has been principally owing (after the circumstance of the destruction of St. Domingo, which, previous to its revolution, supplied nearly the whole world) to the small duty levied on its importation into England, the duty at first being little more than nominal: in 1812, 1½*d.* per lb.; in 1814, 2½*d.*; and in 1832, 3*d.* per lb. Its importance to India may be judged of from the fact that in the Bengal Presidency the cultivation of indigo is carried on from Dacca to Delhi, occupying upwards of 1,000,000 statute acres, yielding an annual produce worth from 2,000,000*l.* to 3,000,000*l.* sterling, whereof one-half, or perhaps more, is expended in India for rent, stock, wages, interest on capital, &c. There are from three to four hundred factories in Bengal, chiefly in Jessore, Kishnagur and Tirhoot. (See *Appendix.*) The factories are

principally held by Europeans, but many natives have factories of their own, and in several instances produce indigo equal to any manufactured by Europeans. The low price which indigo now brings in Europe is diminishing the quantity produced, the exportation some years being 9,000,000 lbs.; the recent failures in India will tend to bring the trade within more profitable limits. The cultivation of indigo in Madras is trifling,—there is little or none prepared in the Bombay Presidency. The indigo produced annually in the East Indies from 1811 was:—

Years.	Chests.	Years.	Chests.	Years.	Chests.	Years	Chests.	Years.	Chests.
1811	21000	1816	25000	1821	21100	1826	28000	1831	30000
1812	23500	1817	20500	1822	25700	1827	45300	1832	
1813	22800	1818	19100	1823	29800	1828	30000	1833	
1814	26500	1819	20700	1824	24100	1829	43200	1834	
1815	30500	1820	27200	1825	43500	1830	32100	1835	

The price of indigo per chest in London was in 1824, 111*l.*; in 1825, 140*l.*; and in 1831 but 45*l.*; the supply now exceeds the demand, at least in England; but the consumption of Bengal indigo is fast augmenting in France, Holland, Germany, &c. [For the importations into England from different countries see *Appendix*.]

Silk forms the next most important staple of India, and in conjunction with the former, its production in our own territories is of essential advantage to silk and tabbinet manufacturers in England. The total quantity of raw silk imported into England for 1834 was 3,693,512 lbs.; and the quantity furnished by British India alone to England in the same year was 1,203,658 lbs.

Three species of mulberry trees are cultivated in India, and two species of silk worm (the country worm, and the annular Italian, or Chinese worm); the latter feeds also on the castor oil plant leaf. The silk is produced in cocoons by the Ryots or small cultivators, to whom the E. I. Company's agents make advances, and the Company have eleven or twelve filatures or large factories for reeling it with machinery on the simple Italian principle. The Gonatea is the best, the Bauleah the worst. The price of silk has risen in India with

the wages of labour, and some manufacturers say the quality has deteriorated; probably *quantity* has been more attended to than quality. The silk districts of Bengal are, Radnagore, Hurripaul, Santipore, Cossimbuzar, Bauleah, Comercolly, Sardah, Jungypore, Mauldah, Rungpoor, Sunna-Meekhi and Gonnatea, all between the parallels of lat. 22° and 26°, and long. 86° to 90°.*

The superior quality of Italian silk does not demonstrate natural inferiority in that of India, or bales of E. I. to which attention has been paid have sold equally well with Italian silk. Efforts are now making in the Bombay Presidency to extend the production of raw silk, and the commencement promises success; we may therefore look forward to a period when we shall be totally independent of every other country for the raw staple of this essential and beautiful branch of our national manufactures.

Cotton, a staple of Indian agriculture and of British manufactures, well deserves attention, were it only for the important circumstance that our chief branch of trade is almost totally dependent on a rival, (and with little provocation) perhaps a hostile state. The importation of American cotton into England is nearly 300,000,000 lbs. yearly, that of India not the *one-twentieth* part of British consumption. If we can be made independent of France and America for indigo and silk, so can we become also of cotton, India producing in itself every variety; the justly celebrated sea island cotton is actually in cultivation in several parts of India, but owing to neglect it degenerates into an annual, whereas in America it is carefully cultivated as a triennial plant. The Dacca muslins, so celebrated all over the globe, (and of which the manufacture is now lost, owing to the inundation of Manchester goods), were made from India cotton, and if the late duty had been kept on American raw cotton, sufficient encouragement would have been given to the Hindoos to attend to its cultivation, as it is we have not only ruined the Indian manufacturer, but in return we have offered no encouragement to the raw producer. The cotton grower in India ought to be stimulated to greater efforts on examining the consumption of cotton wool in England:—

* The Company's factories are now, I believe, being sold to private speculators.

Total quantities of Cotton Yarn produced and consumed in Great Britain.—Exported from 1818 till 1834 inclusive.

Years.	CONSUMED AT HOME.			EXPORTED.					
	Cotton Consumed.	Yarn Produced.	Annually.	Russia and Ports in the Baltic.	Germany, Belgium and Holland.	France, Spain, Portugal, and Northern Ports in the Mediterranean.	Africa and N. and S. America.	India and China.	Totals.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1818	109,902,000	98,911,800	84,168,125	5,913,691	7,937,234	876,957	13,932	1,861	14,743,675
1819	109,518,000	98,566,200	80,480,790	3,779,544	13,124,637	1,157,593	22,665	971	18,085,410
1820	120,265,000	108,238,500	85,206,175	9,060,052	11,859,802	2,089,451	22,009	1,011	23,032,325
1821	129,029,000	116,126,100	95,599,731	4,815,114	14,819,820	1,863,340	21,674	6,421	21,526,369
1822	145,493,000	130,943,700	104,348,232	4,948,619	18,764,070	2,838,828	20,673	23,278	26,595,468
1823	154,146,000	138,731,400	111,352,414	7,148,497	16,694,715	3,383,204	29,035	123,535	27,378,986
1824	165,174,000	148,656,600	115,051,090	12,304,373	16,497,594	4,652,063	45,616	105,864	33,605,510
1825	166,831,000	150,147,900	117,506,296	9,369,333	19,721,419	3,264,078	51,408	235,366	32,641,604
1826	150,213,000	135,191,700	93,012,179	12,380,188	22,160,331	6,671,463	47,732	919,807	42,179,521
1827	197,200,000	177,480,000	134,133,368	11,481,650	23,225,400	5,675,140	170,797	2,793,645	43,346,632
1828	217,860,000	196,074,000	152,831,118	14,838,515	18,169,935	5,826,280	222,872	4,185,280	43,242,882
1829	219,200,000	197,280,000	136,717,811	17,564,062	31,262,142	8,203,386	636,274	2,896,325	60,562,189
1830	247,600,000	222,840,000	159,161,884	17,855,541	29,718,184	11,485,195	327,483	4,291,713	63,678,116
1831	262,700,000	236,430,000	174,868,846	14,352,638	28,023,322	10,792,384	1,689,155	6,703,655	61,561,154
1832	276,900,000	249,210,000	174,646,808	20,516,822	39,479,666	7,805,977	1,443,534	5,317,193	74,563,192
1833	287,000,000	258,300,000	191,820,980	19,446,895	34,853,842	6,160,239	1,402,311	4,615,733	66,479,020
1834	303,000,000	272,700,000	191,364,441	18,033,642	39,248,959	17,179,634	1,392,892	5,480,432	81,335,559

As the surest means of inducing a more careful attention to India cotton, both in the cultivation,* cleaning and packing, a removal of the entire duty on importation into England would be most effectual, coupled with an absence of all transit dues in the East.

Opium is the next important staple deserving consideration, the value of which will be most readily appreciated, by looking at the quantity annually exported from India to China for 15 years,—

Years.	No. of Chests Imported.		Average Price per Chest in Spanish Dollars.		Sale Value of each Kind in Spanish Dollars.		Total No. of Chests Imported.	Total val. of Importation. Sp. Dol.
	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.		
1816	2610	600	1200	875	3132000	525000	3210	3657000
1817	2530	1150	1265	612	3200450	703800	3680	3904250
1818	3050	1530	1000	725	3050000	1109250	4510	4159250
1819	2970	1630	1235	1175	3667950	1915250	4600	5583200
1820	3050	1720	1900	1515	5795000	2605800	4770	8400800
1821	2910	1718	2075	1325	6038250	2276350	4628	8314600
1822	1822	4000	1552	1200	2828930	5160000	4822	7988930
1823	2910	4172	1600	925	4656000	3859100	7082	8515100
1824	2655	6000	1175	750	3119625	4500000	8655	7619625
1825	3442	6179	913	723	3141755	4464450	9621	7608205
1826	3661	6308	1002	942	3668565	5941520	9969	9610085
1827	5134	4401	998	1204	5125155	5299920	9535	10425075
1828	5965	7701	940	968	5604235	6928880	13132	12533115
1829	7843	6857	860	862	6749570	5907580	14000	12057157
1830	6660	12100	870	588	5790204	7114059	18760	12904263
1831	5950	8265			5682010	5818574	14225	11500584
1832	8267	15403			6551059	8781700	23670	15332759
1833	9534	11715			6089634	7916971	21250	14006605
1834								
1835								
Tot.								

Here we observe a trade in a prohibited article, (opium is smuggled into China) to the amount of upwards of 3,000,000*l.* a year, and which promises yet further increase !†

* Indian cultivators of cotton would do well to remark that the cotton of Egypt is *sown in drills*, as is the custom in America.

† The quantity of opium shipped from Calcutta in 1795-6, was 1,070 chests, and in 1829-30, 7,443 chests. The *total* quantity of opium exported from Calcutta during the former year was 5,183 chests, and during the latter 9,678 chests; the *grand total* exported during the whole 35 years was 162,273 chests, which, at the average rate at which it sold, 1,200 dollars a chest, would give a trade in this stimulating drug of nearly *two hundred million Spanish dollars !*

Malwa opium is considered by the Chinese as having a higher touch, but not so mellow, nor so pleasant in flavour as the Patna opium. The smokeable extract which each quality of opium contains is thus intimated by the Chinese,—(who use opium as we do wine or spirits) Patna and Benares opium 45 to 50 touch; avg 48; Malwa 70 to 75; avg 72½; Turkey 53 to 57; avg touch 55. The cultivation of opium in India, as explained under the chapter in revenue, is a monopoly as regards Patna and Benares in the hands of Government; and a revenue is derived from the Malwa opium by a system of passes on shipment from Bombay; an analysis of the recent evidence before Parliament, relative to this curious and important smuggling trade, is interesting.

There is no secret in the opium trade; the quantity imported is well-known, and the prices are always given in the Canton Register, a public newspaper: the opium chests being combrous things, are broken up on board the receiving smuggling ships at Lintin, and the opium placed in bags for delivering to the Chinese, who go alongside the ships in smuggling boats in the open face of day, frequently within view of the Chinese men-of-war boats, and the opium is delivered to them upon their presenting what is called an opium order from the agent at Canton. They take it from alongside in smuggling boats that are well manned and armed; and as there a great many rivers, branches, and islands at different places, they put off directly with it, and then set all the government boats at defiance. Four Mandarin boats have been surrounding a ship when there were 30 chests of opium to smuggle, and was prevented from going to sea on account of the opium: the way that they smuggled it was thus:—they stripped the chest entirely away, took nothing but the opium, and put it into bags; the lower deck port was opened, and in one moment they put the opium into the boat, and all hands were off in a second. It was done in a very heavy shower of rain. There was a cry out about three minutes afterwards, but the boat was gone like a shot. Of the Mandarins' boats lying near—one was lying a-head, touching the ship, another was lying at the stern, and another was lying upon the opposite side. They were there to prevent smuggling. But these boats may not be strong enough to prevent the smuggling, for there are instances of the opium boats overpowering all force where it was a very large quantity, and it was worth their while killing and wounding men. The Hong merchants do not deal in opium, and the persons who carry it from Canton are obliged to conceal it about their baggage to evade the search of the Chinese officers.

The Chinese authorities have frequently issued the strongest proclamations against the entrance of opium into China; it is denounced as a poison, and an imperial edict is supposed to be indisputable; but practice and professions are very much at variance in China, and the smuggling trade in opium is carried on with the connivance of the lower government authorities, perhaps with that of their superiors—although in some instances, when the opium boats have been seized, the crews have had their heads cut off, and the custom-house officers by whom the opium is seized, light a fire upon the top of a hill, declaring the contraband opium to be burnt, while none of it has been put into the fire—so that, although the interposition of the revenue officers may be connected with the loss of life, it does not lead to the cessation of the trade in opium, for the opium finds its way to all parts of the empire, and within the walls of the imperial palace at Pekin, although the smoking of opium is found to have upon the persons who practise it the most demoralising effects; to a certain extent it destroys their reason and faculties, and shortens life. A confirmed opium smoker is never fit to conduct business, and is generally unfit for the social intercourse of his friends or family: he may be known by his inflamed eyes and haggard countenance. Formerly the opium trade was carried on at Macoa and Whampoa, but in 1820 the Chinese authorities commenced vigorous measures against the smugglers at Whampoa, and even threatened to search foreign vessels for opium, which was the means of driving the trade outside the port to Lintin, where the opium ships lie at anchor, the commanding officers of those vessels receiving orders from the agents of Canton for every chest of opium that is sold.

The quantity and value of the Indian opium, according to the latest returns, consumed in China was 23,693 chests, valued at upwards of three million sterling!*

* Estimate of Quantity and Total Value of Indian Opium consumed in China during the last Six Years.

Years.	Patna.	Benares.	Malwa.	Total.	
	Chests.	Chests.	Chests.	Chests.	Amount.
					S. Rs.
1827-28	4,006	1,128	4,401	9,535	10,425,075
1828-29	4,831	1,130	7,171	13,132	12,533,215
1829-30	5,564	1,579	6,857	14,000	12,057,157
1830-31	5,085	1,575	12,100	18,760	12,904,263
1831-32	4,442	1,518	8,265	14,225	11,501,584
1832-33	6,410	1,880	15,403½	23,693½	15,352,429

SUGAR, may be cultivated and manufactured to an extent in India sufficient to supply the whole world; its production at present is immense, as it forms an ingredient in almost every article of food or drink used by the Hindoos, and where the manufacture is attended to as at Benares, the grain is large and sparkling and pure as the best Mauritius or Demerara sugar. The soil and climate of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay are peculiarly suited to the production of this essential nourishment to man; every village has its patch of cane, and a rough manufacture named *Jaghery* is extracted from the Palmyra and cocoa-nut tree. It is in evidence before Parliament that the sugar-cane of Bengal is as good as any of the W. Indies, and some of a superior quality has been produced.*

The great secret of improving and extending the cultivation of sugar in India, is the reduction of the duty levied on it in England; the coarsest kinds of Bengal sugar now pay a tax in Great Britain of 120 per cent. on the gross price, which after deducting freight and charges is equal to 200 *per cent.* on the proceeds in England! The Hindoos in their recent petition to Parliament thus express their feelings on this subject.

Every encouragement is held out to the exportation from England to India, of the growth and produce of foreign as well as English industry, while *many thousands of the natives*, who a short time ago derived a livelihood from the growth of cotton and the manufacture of cotton goods, *are without*

* In Bengal, in 1831, 1,000 acres were planted with cane. In a very short time afterwards 2,000 tons of sugar, equal to the Havannahs, were announced for our markets, besides what had been disposed of for the Persian Gulf market, and the molasses and rum, which met with a ready demand for internal consumption. Within the same period (six months) there were three dwelling houses, a boiling and curing house, and a refinery, all built of brick and mortar, erected equal in magnitude to two large West India establishments—having a steam engine and mill, a cattle mill, two sets of boilers, and six clarifiers in the boiling house, and a separate one in the refinery. The cost is said to have been very moderate, although an English bricklayer who saw it estimated that in England it would have cost upwards of 50,000*l.* sterling, and that he could not have undertaken to complete it on so magnificent a scale in less than two years.—*Nicholson's Commercial Gazette.*

bread, in consequence of the facilities afforded to the produce of America and to the manufacturing industry of England; but *sugar*, to the production of which the lands of the petitioners might be turned, is loaded with such heavy duties in England, as *effectually to shut the market against the industry of the East Indians, when turned to this particular commodity.*

The small quantity of sugar which British India now sends to England, notwithstanding that in the former place it is *exceeded only by rice in consumption*, will be seen by the following recent return of sugar imported into the United Kingdom.

Year 1834.

British Plantation	3,844,243 cwts.	E. India Brit. Possess.	76,617 cwts.
Foreign Plantation	202,030 ..		
Mauritius . . .	555,860 ..	——— Foreign Do.	64,663 ..

The quantity of sugar consumed in the United Kingdom, averaged so high as 4,000,000 cwts. would for a population of 24,000,000 (leaving aside 1,000,000 for young infants, many of whom, however, also consume sugar) give only 18 lbs. a year, or 5 oz. a week, for each individual; now, it is well known, that a child of one year old would consume more than 5 oz. a week; that the workhouse allowance is frequently 34 lbs. a year, and the lowest domestic servant, 1 lb. a week, or 52 lbs. a year. We might, therefore, fairly conclude that, if the duties on all our colonial sugars were reduced and placed on a level, the consumption and revenue would be thus increased:—

	Consumption.	Revenue.
West India Plantation Sugar . . .	Cwts. 4,000,000	
Tax at 1*l.* (now 1*l.* 4*s.*) per cwt. . .		£4,000,000
Mauritius Sugar	500,000	
Tax at 1*l.* (now 1*l.* 4*s.*) per cwt. . .		500,000
East India Possessions' Sugar . . .	2,000,000	
Tax at 1*l.* (now 1*l.* 12*s.*) per cwt. . .		2,000,000
Foreign Sugar	500,000	
Tax at 2*l.* (now 3*l.* 3*s.*) per cwt. . .		1,000,000
Total .	Cwts. 7,000,000	£7,500,000

Here we observe that, even at the moderate rate of consumption of 32lbs. a year or only 9 oz. per week, of sugar for each individual, the revenue would be augmented by

2,500,000*l.* and the commerce, health and manufactures of the empire wonderfully increased.—[See Vol. II. *West Indies*, for full details.]

There can even be no doubt, that if the duty were reduced to 12*s.* on West India, and to 16*s.* on East India sugars, similar favourable results would ensue; for a few years (say two or three) the revenue would suffer, but a reduction and equalization to 20*s.* would instantly increase the revenue, while a prospect of eventual further diminution would prepare the way for greater national benefits.

COFFEE next deserves consideration as an Indian staple, and which like the last article only requires just treatment in England to become one of the most valuable exports. In Malabar, Coimbatore, &c. the cultivation is extensive, and the berry of the finest flavour when attended to in the drying. Upper Bengal and the territories acquired from the Burmese are peculiarly adapted for the growth of coffee, and if the duty be reduced on it in England to 6*d.* while the West Indies is reduced to 4*d.*, the commerce of England and the morals of the people will be sensibly improved.

The following returns shew the quantity of coffee imported from the East Indies into Great Britain,—re-exported and retained for home use for 15 years; the return includes Ceylon, avg. 2,824,998 lbs. Singapore, 3,611,456 lbs. Mauritius, 26,646 lbs. &c. From Bengal, Madras and Bombay alone for 1831—2,780,668 lbs.

East India Coffee Imported into the United Kingdom from 1820 to 1834.

Years.	Imported.	Re-exported.	Home use.	Years.	Imported.	Re-exported.	Home use.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.		lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1820	5,497,721	4,307,370	285,945	1827	5,872,511	4,655,104	888,198
1821	1,904,021	3,526,566	266,177	1828	7,380,492	5,084,916	973,410
1822	4,487,859	3,599,814	171,717	1829	6,335,647	7,474,169	974,576
1823	4,114,289	2,129,111	235,697	1830	7,066,199	5,187,866	989,585
1824	5,760,912	4,718,389	313,513	1831	7,691,390	6,525,417	1,234,721
1825	4,513,290	2,678,930	457,745	1832	10,727,026	9,715,324	1,970,635
1826	5,520,354	5,670,077	791,570	1833	6,218,299	3,996,097	1,801,506
				1834	9,951,141	6,303,562	1,560,098

It will be perceived by the foregoing that of late years the importation of E. I. coffee is on the increase, still there is a great defalcation compared with 1815 and 1816, when the

importation of coffee by the *private trade* amounted in two years to 43,381,478 lbs.!

PEPPER is another valuable India staple, but its import from the East has considerably fallen off, the importations of 1815 and 1816 being 17,863,847 lbs. and in 1827 and 1828 but 14,045,868 lbs. being a decrease of nearly 4,000,000 lbs. weight. The duty on it in England is still too high; a reduction of it would be beneficial to all classes.

SALTPETRE is yielded by the Indian soil in greater abundance than any other country, its importation into England by the East India Company in 1814, was 146,000 cwt., but the continuance of peace has much lessened both the price and consumption; both are now again on the rise, but the price is still so low that the saltpetre collected in the East is now being brought to fertilize the fields of Albion.* The import of late years of saltpetre from Bengal has been about 100,000 bags, but the total quantity exported from Calcutta has averaged 170,000 bags, while in the year 1795, it did not amount to more than 13,000 bags. The total quantity exported from Calcutta during the thirty-five years ending 1829-30, was 2,202,465 bags, of which the United Kingdom received 1,523,655 bags; North America 278,895 bags; France 101,237 bags, and China 133,615 bags.

The TOBACCO of Masulipatam, made into snuff, is much prized in England; the quantity of tobacco grown in India is enormous; every class, high and low, use it, and if the duty were reduced in England, the variety of soils in India would afford an infinite variety of that fascinating weed for the British market. Very rich lands produce about 160 lbs. per acre of green leaf; excellent Havannah tobacco is grown in Guzerat, Boglipoor, Bundlecund, &c., and some from the Irrawaddy territories has been reported by the brokers in

* Quantities of *nitrate of soda* have recently been imported into England and France from South America, and the commodity is becoming an object of attention; it is said not to answer so well as saltpetre (*nitrate of potash*) for making gunpowder, but to be equally applicable to the uses of most of the manufacturers and for the curers of provisions; it is also stated to afford a greater proportion of nitric acid than saltpetre.

London as equal to the best American. The want of proper attention in the curing has been a great obstacle to its arriving in a marketable state in England after a long East Indian voyage. Tobacco, like hay, must undergo a heating to be fit for use, and the slightest particle of green vegetable matter left in the tobacco heats on the voyage, destroys the delicate flavour of the leaf, and even rots it. Experiments are now making at Bombay in the curing process.*

GRAIN is one of the staples of Bengal; the total quantity of grain exported from Calcutta to countries beyond the three Presidencies amounted, during the thirty-five years, ending 1829-30, to 12,366,571 bags; for the latter years the export has been on the increase, averaging 600,000 bags a year, and of this quantity Mauritius has of late taken nearly *one-half*, for instance in 1828-29, 332,756 bags. Great Britain has received, during the whole thirty-five years, 1,730,998 bags; and the export to France is yearly increasing.

The following statement exhibits the quantity and value of rice, wheat, and all other grain and pulse exported from the several ports of Bengal to the several ports on the *Coromandel Coast alone*, from 1796 to 1829, (the Isle of France Population is almost entirely fed by Bengal rice.)

Years.	Bags.	Maunds.	Value in Sic. Rupees.	Years.	Bags.	Maunds.	Value in Sic. Rupees.
1796	2,73,763	5,47,526	5,55,451	1816	1,75,512	3,51,024	3,51,024
1797	2,11,664	4,23,328	3,33,170	1817	1,00,018	2,00,036	2,00,036
1798	3,46,341	6,92,682	6,51,691	1818	1,35,619	2,71,238	2,71,238
1799	4,60,966	9,21,932	9,52,321	1819	44,141	88,282	88,282
1800	4,88,211	9,76,422	9,72,601	1820	33,370	66,740	66,740
1801	4,89,431	9,78,862	9,87,975	1821	1,64,876	3,29,752	3,29,752
1802	6,21,500	12,43,000	12,43,020	1822	59,356	1,18,712	1,18,712
1803	7,14,425	14,28,850	14,28,850	1823	4,14,533	8,29,082	15,91,326
1804	4,32,790	8,65,580	8,65,580	1824	3,65,061	7,30,121	11,52,046
1805	5,19,329	10,38,658	10,38,658	1825	4,35,144	9,64,145	11,26,840
1806	13,17,829	26,35,658	26,35,658	1826	58,414	1,15,690	1,96,601
1807	11,15,383	22,30,766	22,30,766	1827	36,077	72,025	1,06,183
1808	3,03,462	6,06,924	6,06,924	1828	23,601	47,203	70,785
1809	2,31,660	4,63,220	4,63,220	1829			
1810	1,56,247	3,12,494	3,12,494	1830			
1811	3,44,144	6,88,288	6,98,091	1831			
1812	4,73,401	9,46,802	9,46,802	1832			
1813	4,84,202	9,68,404	9,68,404	1833	No Returns made up since 1828.		
1814	3,30,530	6,61,060	6,61,060	1834			
1815	1,43,341	2,86,682	2,86,682				

It would be tedious to particularize all the varied and

* The duty on E. I. tobacco might, without loss to the revenue, be reduced from 2*s* 9*d*. to 2*s*. at least.

valuable products of India, whether in reference to ginger, cardamoms, lacdyes, camphor, drugs, oils—essential and non-essential, timber, hemp, *grain*, &c. &c., all of which form important items in the trade of England; suffice it to say, that Nature's choicest treasures are lavished in superabundance on the British possessions in Asia; and if man remains in poverty and destitution, while the riches of the earth are at his feet, and require only to be gathered, he has no right to arraign the wisdom and beneficence of his Creator. When we reflect that there are the almost unnumerable multitude of 100,000,000 British subjects ready and eager to receive our manufactures if we will only receive their produce, whether cotton, sugar, coffee, tobacco, saltpetre, &c., it seems almost insanity to think that we only carry on a commerce of 5,000,000*l.* value with such a vast, rich, and civilized territory. Under a just system the British Commerce with India ought to be 50,000,000*l.* a year, yielding employment, wealth, and happiness to myriads upon myriads of the human race, making the trackless ocean a connecting link instead of a separating boundary between both hemispheres, and giving unto maritime trade that steadiness and permanence which it is always void of when cramped and checked by fiscal laws and exactions.

The following are the rates of duty levied in Great Britain on the several articles of Eastern commerce, and the duty levied on similar productions of other Colonies, or from foreign States, is also added; the equalizations which appear between E. and W. India or Colonial products is the work of last year; and it is but just to assign the merit of the deed to Mr. Poulett Thompson, who, I hope, will proceed still further than he has yet done in reducing the duties levied in England on all products grown or manufactured in our transmarine settlements.

[I avail myself of a blank page in the typographical arrangement, to shew the result of our impoverishing India by refusing to receive her produce into the English markets.

DECREASING BRITISH TRADE WITH INDIA.

STATEMENT, shewing the Value of certain of the principal Articles Exported from Great Britain to places East of the Cape, except China, in 1811, 1815, and 1828, excluding Mauritius in the last Year.

	Year ending 5th Jan. 1812.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1816.		Year ending 5th Jan. 1829.		Increase since 1812.	Decrease since 1812.
	£.	Quantities.	£.	Quantities.	£.	£.	£.
Brass	12661	Cwts. 1098	9754	Cwts. 316	2970	..	9691
Cabinet & Upholstery Wares	12573	..	5552	..	3787	..	8786
Carriages	4656	No. 164	15366	No. 152	11277	6621	..
Copper, unwrought	..	Cwts. 10287	58130	Cwts. 15147	70287	..	34161
Copper, wrought	240636	.. 31102	204468	.. 26343	136188	..	
Cordage	32744	.. 11451	37809	.. 5161	12254	..	20490
	including earthenware.						
Glass	118172	..	116340	..	109525	..	8647
Guns and Pistols	118898	No. 53802	106050	No. 42796	96589	..	22309
Hats	22523	Doz. 4637	21248	Doz. 1986	8660	..	13863
Iron, bar and bolt	90021	Tons 9150	138066	Tons 17378	147790	57769	..
Ditto, cast and wrought	177002	.. 56110	87522	.. 82429	88153	..	88849
Lead	70310	.. 1245	27257	.. 1764	31192	..	39118
Leather, tanned and wrought (including Saddlery)	45028	..	45504	..	43412	..	1616
Linens	25438	..	24673	..	30031	4593	..
Steel, unwrought	2896	Cwts. 10661	17493	Cwts. 4469	5432	2536	..
Tin, ditto	..	.. 20	89	.. 106	219	219	..
Tin and Pewter Wares and Tin Plates	10226	..	6285	..	6498	..	3728
Woollen Manufactures	277196	..	255734	..	261326	..	15870
Total Woollens, Metals and other principal Articles, exclusive of Cotton Goods	1260980	..	1277540	..	1065590	..	Net. 195390
All other Goods except Cotton	727136	..	1145810	..	1188106	460970	..
Total Exports, except Cotton	1988116	..	2423350	..	2253696	Net. 265580	..
Cotton Manufactures	107306	..	142411	..	1505714	1398408	..
Cotton Twist and Yarn	..	..	..	..	388888	388888	..
Total of all Exports, £	2095422	..	2565761	..	4148298	Net. 2052876	..

The Exports of 1828, compared with those of 1815, both being Years of Open Trade, exhibit the following results:

	1815.	1828.	Increase.	Decrease.
Total Woollens, Metal and other principal Articles, exclusive of Cotton Goods	1277540	1065590	..	211950
Total Exports, except Cotton	2423350	2253696	..	169654
Total of all Exports	2565761	4148298	1582537	..

The Books of the Custom House do not furnish the Quantities in 1811, nor is Mauritius separated before 1823.

India Board, Westminster,
21st March, 1832.

WM. LEACH.

Specific Rates of Duty chargeable in England on Articles, the produce of British India, other Colonies and Foreign Places, in June, 1835.

Articles.	British India.	Brit. Colonies.	Foreign.
Aloes . . . . . lb.	£0 0 2	£0 0 2	£0 0 8
Arrowroot . . . . . —	0 0 2	0 1 cwt.	0 lb. 2
Assafœtida . . . . . cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Barilla . . . . . per ton.	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
Benjamin . . . . . cwt.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Borax, refined . . . . . —	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
Ditto, unrefined . . . . . —	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Camphor, unrefined . . . . . —	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Canes—Ratans . . . . . per 1000	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Ditto, walking . . . . . —	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cardamums . . . . . lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Cinnamon . . . . . —	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 1 0
Cloves . . . . . —	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 3 0
Cochineal . . . . . —	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 6
Coffee (Sierra Leone, 9d.) . . . . —	0 0 9	0 0 6	0 1 0
Coir or Cocoa Nut Rope . . . . cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cotton manufactures . . per cent. ad val.	10 to £20	10 to £20	10 to £20
Cotton, Wool . . . . . cwt.	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 2 11
Cubebs . . . . . lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Ebony . . . . . ton	0 3 0	0 3 0	5 0 0
Galengal . . . . . —	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Galls . . . . . cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
Gamboge . . . . . lb.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Ginger . . . . . cwt.	0 11 0	0 11 0	2 13 0
Ditto, preserved . . . . . lb.	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 1 3
Gums, varied . . . . . cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Hair or Wool Manufacture . . per cent. ad val.	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Hemp . . . . . cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
Hides, dry . . . . . cwt.	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 4 8
Ditto, wet . . . . . —	0 1 2	0 1 2	0 2 4
Horns . . . . . cwt.	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 2 4
Indigo . . . . . lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 4
Lackered Ware . . . . per cent. ad val.	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Mace . . . . . lb.	0 3 6	0 3 6	0 4 6
Madder Root . . . . . cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Mangoes . . . . . gal.	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6
Mats and Matting . . . . per cent.	5 0 0	5 0 0	20 0 0
Mother Pearl . . . . . —	5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Musk . . . . . oz.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Myrrh . . . . . cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Nutmegs . . . . . lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 3 6
Nux Vomica . . . . . —	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
Olibanum . . . . . cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Orpiment . . . . . —	1 8 6	1 8 6	1 8 6
Oils, essential . . . . . lb.	0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4
Oil, Castor . . . . . —	0 0 3	0 lb. 3	0 1 lb.
Oil, Cloves . . . . . —	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 14 0
Oil, Cocoa Nuts' . . . . . cwt.	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 1 3
Pearls . . . . . per cent.	5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Pepper (Foreign India, 1s. 2d. per lb.) . lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 2
Rhubarb . . . . . —	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Rice, unhusked . . . . . cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 15 0
Safflower . . . . . cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Sago . . . . . —	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Saltpetre . . . . . —	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Sanguis Draconis . . . . . —	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Sapan and Sandal Wood . . . . ton	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Senna . . . . . lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Silk, raw . . . . . —	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
Ditto, manufactured . . . . per cent.	20 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Soap, hard . . . . . —	1 8 0	1 8 0	4 10 0
Spirits . . . . . gal.	0 15 0	0 9 0	1 2 6
Sugar . . . . . cwt.	1 12 0	1 4 0	3 3 0
Teeth, Ivory . . . . . —	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0
Tin . . . . . —	2 10 0	2 10 0	2 10 0
Tobacco, Segars . . . . . lb.	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0
Tortoise-shell . . . . . —	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 2 0
Ditto, manufactured . . . . cwt.	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Turmerick . . . . . —	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 10 0
Vermilion . . . . . lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Wax, Bees', unmanufactured . . cwt.	0 10 0	0 10 0	1 10 0
Ditto, manufactured . . . . —	1 0 0	1 0 0	3 0 0
Wood, Teak (For India, 10s.) . . load	0 0 1	0 10 0	1 10 0
Other Goods or Wares manufactured . . per cent.	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0

In order to render the foregoing document complete, it will be advisable to give the following comparison of the Prices in London (*exclusive of duty*) of East India Produce, for the last eight years, with the rate of decrease or rise in price.

From the London Mercantile Price Current. First Week in January.		1826.			1827.			1828.			1829.			1830.			1831.			1832.			1833.			1834.			1835.			Fall from 1826 to 1835.	Rise do. 1826 to 1835.
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	Pr. Ct.	Pr. Ct.
Arrack, Batavia	gal.	0	4	6	0	7	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	5	0	0	4	6	0	4	6	0	4	3	0	2	4	0	3	1	5	
Coffee, Mocha	cwt.	5	10	0	6	0	0	5	10	0	7	0	0	6	10	0	6	7	0	6	10	0	4	0	0	4	5	0	4	5	0	27	
Cotton, Surat	lb.	0	0	6¼	0	0	5⅜	0	0	5	0	0	4⅜	0	0	5	0	0	5⅜	0	0	5	0	0	5⅝	0	0	6½	0	0	7½	10	
Do. Bourbon	—	0	1	1	0	0	10	0	0	11	0	0	9½	0	0	8¾	0	0	9¾	0	0	9	0	0	10	none			none			22	
Aloes, Epatica, dry	cwt.	18	0	0	18	0	0	20	0	0	15	0	0	15	0	0	16	5	0	16	0	0	14	0	0	13	0	0	12	10	0	22	
Aniseeds, star	—	3	15	0	3	15	0	6	0	0	5	0	0	5	10	0	4	5	0	3	10	0	3	8	0	3	8	0	3	4	0	10	
Borax, refined	—	3	0	0	2	2	0	2	5	0	2	15	0	3	8	0	3	0	0	3	6	0	..	..		3	18	0	3	4	0	..	10
Do. unrefined	—	2	15	0	1	18	0	2	5	0	..	..		4	4	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	..	..		4	2	0	3	13	0	..	9
Camphire, China	—	9	0	0	9	0	0	8	5	0	7	5	0	5	10	0	4	14	0	15	0	0	6	0	0	6	10	0	7	0	0	33	
Cardamoms, Ceylon	lb.	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	2	0	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	10	0	1	11	0	1	8	..	83
Do. Malabar	—	0	4	0	0	6	3	0	16	0	0	9	6	0	6	0	0	5	6	0	4	6	0	3	2	0	3	2	0	2	10	20	
Castor Oil	—	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	2	0	0	1	3	0	1	4½	0	1	0	0	1	4	0	1	0	0	0	10	..	14
China Root	cwt.	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	0	0	0	15	6	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	6	0	1	16	0	1	15	6	0	18	0	..	20
Cochineal	lb.	0	3	6	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	9	0	1	3	0	1	3	0	1	8	0	1	5	1	5	0	52	
Coculus Indicus	cwt.	3	0	0	3	5	0	3	0	0	1	13	0	1	10	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	1	0	0	0	19	0	0	9	0	80	
Columbo Root	—	9	0	0	5	0	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	12	0	0	5	15	0	4	0	0	3	5	0	3	0	0	1	15	0	63	
Cubebs	—	10	0	0	7	7	0	9	9	0	6	5	0	3	0	0	4	5	0	5	10	0	3	5	0	3	7	6	2	12	0	67	
Dragon's Blood	—	25	0	0	20	0	0	20	0	0	17	10	0	24	0	0	27	0	0	27	0	0	20	0	0	17	5	0	22	10	0	20	
Galls, blue	—	6	15	0	5	0	0	3	15	0	4	0	0	3	15	0	3	10	0	3	12	0	3	11	0	3	8	0	5	5	0	47	
Do. white	—	6	0	0	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	3	6	0	3	10	0	3	8	0	3	0	0	5	0	0	43	
Gum Ammoniac	—	12	0	0	12	0	0	10	0	0	6	0	0	5	10	0	5	10	0	7	0	0	7	0	0	6	10	0	6	10	0	41	
Do. Animi, half scraped	—	5	0	0	5	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	6	0	6	0	0	5	10	0	..	26
Do. do. clean	—	9	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	0	12	10	0	12	5	0	12	0	0	10	10	0	8	10	0	7	12	0	..	16
Do. Arabic, fine	—	4	5	0	3	0	0	3	10	0	3	5	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	2	18	0	3	0	0	2	17	0	2	8	0	29	
Do. do. brown drop	—	2	10	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	18	0	..	..		..	..		1	18	0	2	0	0	24	
Do. Assafœtida	—	6	0	0	3	15	0	3	15	0	1	15	0	4	0	0	3	0	0	4	10	0	8	0	0	4	10	0	2	15	0	..	33
Gum Benjamin, 2d.	—	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	2	0	0	19	0	..	
Gambogium, picked	—	16	10	0	20	0	0	26	0	0	28	0	0	22	0	0	24	0	0	19	0	0	16	10	0	16	0	0	13	6	0	..	
Kino	—	16	0	0	14	0	0	14	0	0	13	0	0	12	0	0	14	0	0	12	0	0	12	0	0	7	0	0	7	0	0	25	
Lac Lake	lb.	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	6	0	1	4	0	1	0	0	0	9	none.			50	
Dye D T	—	0	5	6	0	4	6	0	3	9	0	3	6	0	3	6	0	3	4	0	2	4	0	2	3	0	2	1	0	2	3	59	
Other fine sorts	—	0	5	0	0	4	0	0	3	3	0	2	3	0	2	6	0	2	0	0	1	5	0	1	3	0	1	6	0	1	6	75	
Seed	cwt.	0	18	0	0	18	0	1	19	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	3	12	0	3	10	0	3	5	0	2	16	6	1	17	0	..	261
Shell, dark	—	3	15	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	4	5	0	5	5	0	6	10	0	5	5	0	6	0	0	5	18	0	5	12	0	..	69
orange	—	5	0	0	4	5	0	4	10	0	5	5	0	5	15	0	8	10	0	7	10	0	7	7	0	7	0	0	6	17	0	..	47
Stick	—	3	5	0	3	5	0	4	4	0	4	4	0	4	4	0	4	0	0	2	15	0	2	13	0	2	9	6	2	10	0	18	
Myrrh	—	15	0	0	15	0	0	15	0	0	15	0	0	16	10	0	16	0	0	16	0	0	11	10	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	23	
Olibanum	—	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	5	10	0	4	10	0	2	16	0	5	0	0	3	12	0	3	5	0	1	10	0	10	
Orpiment	—	5	5	0	5	5	0	7	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	none			42	
Munjeet	—	1	10	0	1	5	0	1	0	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	15	0	1	1	0	1	6	0	1	8	6	1	4	6	13	
Musk, China	oz.	0	15	0	0	15	0	1	6	0	1	15	0	2	5	0	2	10	0	3	15	0	1	10	0	0	19	0	0	19	0	..	100
Nux Vomica	cwt.	0	14	0	0	14	0	0	10	0	0	10	0	1	10	0	1	5	0	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	..	50
Oil of Cassia	oz.	0	0	6	0	0	5	0	0	4½	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	5	0	0	9	0	0	7	0	0	7	0	0	6	..	16
Do. Cajaputa	—	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6½	0	0	8	0	0	8	0	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	9	0	0	7	0	0	6½	..	50
Do. Cinnamon	—	0	8	6	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	14	0	0	16	0	0	8	0	0	4	0	0	4	9	5	
Do. Cloves	—	0	1	6	0	1	9	0	1	6	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	1	6	0	0	9	0	0	7	0	0	6	50	

| | | |

BULLION.—There is a considerable trade in *treasure*, or, as we term it in England, in *bullion* throughout the East; for a long period the flow of the precious metals has been from Europe to Asia, but the current is now changed, and the tide has set in favour of the former; in a general view, even up to 1827-28, this will be seen by the following table:

Import and Export of Treasure to Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, from 1810-11 to 1827-28.

Years.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Years.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.
	Rupees.	Rupees.		Rupees.	Rupees.
1810-11	2,32,27,099	12,09,008	1819-20	4,99,22,382	39,84,383
1811-12	1,55,35,947	28,62,484	1820-21	3,30,37,630	17,01,252
1812-13	1,37,85,623	47,49,985	1821-22	2,94,55,390	1,31,98,197
1813-14	98,76,598	36,46,669	1822-23	2,59,65,225	6,73,511
1814-15	1,46,27,842	18,32,408	1823-24	2,14,01,996	1,54,44,324
1815-16	2,58,67,158	12,57,734	1824-25	1,85,90,845	45,62,627
1816-17	5,00,46,081	14,12,273	1825-26	2,42,91,607	55,31,129
1817-18	4,70,78,431	17,29,957	1826-27	2,49,77,289	21,85,033
1818-19	7,01,64,170	75,69,500	1827-28	2,93,30,487	92,45,209
Total Rs.	27,02,08,949	2,62,70,018	Total Rs.	25,69,72,151	9,25,25,665

The foregoing return includes the imports and exports to and from every country; the return, whence it is derived, gives the following totals for the whole 18 years:—

Import from Europe and America, R. R. 20,99,92,761. Export to ditto, 3,66,47,949; from China, 12,26,83,952; to ditto, 77, 58,148; from Eastern Isles, 7,35,55,054; to ditto, 1,21,34,767; from Mauritius and Africa, 68,43,228; to ditto, 42,43,290; from Arabia, &c. 10,47,73,743; to ditto, 9,02,132; from Ceylon, 6,77,224; to ditto, 11,03,858; from other places, 86,55,838; to ditto, 1,31,91,000.

It is a a pity we have not the European and American returns separate; of late years the export from those continents to Asia has been progressively decreasing until now it is scarcely one-fourth the amount of 1815 or 1816. The export from China, &c. to India has increased so as to counterbalance, to some extent, the drain from Europe; but it is to

be feared that, if no facilities be offered for other remittances than that of treasure to England, the continued drain of the precious metals upon India will be productive of evil consequences in a country requiring a very extensive circulating medium; hence, the additional necessity of the proprietors of E. I. stock leaving no means untried to procure an admission of E. I. produce to the English markets on a fair footing with other Colonial products. (See Appendix for bullion returns from each Presidency down to 1834.)

GENERAL TRADE OF INDIA.

The table prefixed to this Chapter, gives a brief view of the value of the trade carried on by different countries with the three Presidencies; but a few more details on the subject will probably be acceptable: and first with reference to the North American trade with India, which of late years had much decreased; an abstract of 1829 and 1830, is given in the following document just laid before the House of Commons:

North American Trade with British India.

	CALCUTTA.			MADRAS.			BOMBAY.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Value, S.Rs.	Ships.	Tons.	Value, M.Rs.	Ships.	Tons.	Value, B.Rs.
1829–30	13	4,129	17,61,787	3	970	81,899	1	185	23,569
1830–31	17	5,262	22,80,344	2	542	37,062	1	181	29,648
1831–32									
1832–33									

The principal exports from Calcutta in 1830-31 were piece goods—*pieces*, No. 196,758, value S. R. 8,63,888; Indigo—*maunds* (each 82 lbs.) 5,851, value S.R. 5,85,090; Saltpetre—*mds.* 88,704, value S.R. 3,87,434; Lac Dye, *mds.* 9,190, val. S. R. 1,65,213; Skins and Hides, val. S.R. 1,32,577; Hemp, S. R. 17,291; Rice, Bags, S. R. 17,968; Tin, S. R. 11,462; Foreign Skins, R. 9,559; Gums, R. 12,858; Tortoiseshell, R. 9,013; Ginger, S.R. 15,742. From Madras—Piece goods, M. R. S. 27,085; Hides and Goat Skins, R. 6,944; Coffee, R. 2,645. Bombay, Coffee, B. R. 15,965; Gum Arabic, R. 5,362. The sundries are made up of various drugs, &c. it is pleasing, however, to observe, that the export of Bengal sugar in American ships is on the increase.

FRENCH.—The French trade with Bengal has of late increased, the principal exports from France being wines, brandy, preserved fruits, millinery and knicknackeries of every sort, the return cargoes consist of indigo, sugar, (the sickly looking whitish Bengal sugar is preferred by the French confectioners for preserves, on account of its containing so little acidity,) peppers, dyes, drugs, coffee, silk, &c. The trade with other parts of Europe is trifling compared with the amount of general commerce, but if the staples of India were improved, it would doubtless increase. A considerable traffic is maintained between India and the Persian Gulf and Arabia; for the seven years ending 1827, the merchandise imported into Calcutta, from those places, amounted to S. R. 85,87,046, and the treasure to S. R. 86,67,716, the exports were S. R. 2,19,22,141 which trade was carried on in 50 English ships, with a tonnage of 20,000, and 80 Arab ships, comprising 35,000 tons. The trade of Madras was of course less; the average annual value of the trade between Calcutta and the Persian Gulf is S. R. 55,96,845; between the Gulf and Madras, S. R. 5,49,819, and between Bombay and the Gulf, S. R. 72,24,971.

The following exhibits the total trade carried on between the three Presidencies and the Persian and Arabian Gulphs.

Years.	IMPORTS.					EXPORTS.				
	English.		Arab.		Value of Imports.	English.		Arab.		Value of Exports.
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Rupees.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Rupees.
1821-22	41	15,569	22	10,444	71,02,237	29	12,387	22	9,700	1,01,91,107
1822-23	34	15,348	18	8,119	77,58,107	19	7,956	13	5,889	66,41,226
1823-24	32	12,233	21	8,831	65,60,994	17	3,814	30	9,926	76,29,238
1824-25	11	3,776	16	7,509	53,77,829	5	2,057	40	8,941	65,12,720
1825-26	6	1,913	21	8,877	54,98,075	18	5,058	41	9,592	78,59,554
1826-27	10	3,994	14	5,539	45,86,765	22	8,282	11	5,863	64,65,341
1827-28	23	9,301	22	7,817	53,50,670	14	5,996	15	6,510	60,46,567

INDIA TRADE WITH CHINA.

This commerce is of great extent, though only of late years brought into much notice, as will be seen by the following detail of trade between India and China, in private ships (as contradistinguished from those of the East India Company.)

	Tonnage.	Value Imports.	Value Exports.	Total Value.
	Tons.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1813	10,668	6,035,128	3,861,916	9,897,044
1814	14,659	7,302,745	4,954,112	12,256,857
1815	11,906	6,991,681	4,337,016	11,328,697
1816	20,172	7,682,500	6,765,269	14,447,769
1817	27,008	11,081,600	5,562,100	16,643,700
1818	21,511	11,999,272	6,814,874	18,814,146
1819	13,873	9,459,932	6,134,692	15,594,624
1820	14,987	10,127,718	5,576,494	15,704,312
1821	21,872	9,170,294	6,170,033	15,340,327
1822	18,011	13,268,249	4,397,701	17,665,950
1823	13,439	11,073,010	6,633,599	17,706,609
1824	20,074	11,024,559	5,799,009	16,823,568
1825	21,748	15,700,878	9,605,089	25,305,967
1826	26,424	15,709,232	8,326,252	24,035,484
1827	28,249	15,845,643	9,656,767	25,502,410
1828	28,282	16,373,228	10,957,814	27,331,042
1829	—	18,447,147	12,921,153	31,368,300
1830				
1831				
1832				
1833				
1834	No Returns down to the present Years.			
1835				

A great part of this trade, indeed nearly one-third consists of smuggled opium from Bengal and Bombay, but the following invoice of the trade for 1830-31, will shew the nature of the commerce in general.

The Trade with China carried on by private India Ships under the British Flag, so far as the same can be ascertained, for the year 1830-31.

IMPORTS, 1830-31.

The Number of Ships, 50; amounting to 26,427 Tons.

Cotton.	Metals.	Pepper & Spices.	Rattans.	Betel Nut.	Putchuck.	Drugs.	Sharks' Fins & Fish Maws.
Pounds.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.
46,854,533	10,194 Boxes 880	13,916	8,924	22,380	1,866	2,906	5,590

Sandal & other Woods.	Opium.	Woollens.	Cotton Goods.	Cotton Yarn.	Clocks, &c.	Pearls and Cornelians.	Total Value of the Imports.
Peculs.	Chests or Peculs.	Pieces.	Value in Dollars.	Peculs.		Value in Dollars.	Dollars.
11,100	17,701	6,166	16,936	267	Nil.	111,469	17,447,642

EXPORTS, 1830-31.

Tutenague.	Raw Silk.	Nankeens.	Sugar & Sugar Candy.	Teas.	Cassia & Cassia buds.	Drugs.	Silk Piece Goods.	Bullion.	Total Value of Exports.
Peculs.	lb.	Pieces.	Peculs.	lb.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Value in Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
2,160	889,067	925,200	143,464	2,748,533	11,385	21,129½ and a quantity (not stated), value 46,435 dollars.	465,195	4,684,370	9,976,841

For an account of the general trade of China see Chap. X.

With respect to the India trade, it is stated that a large portion of the assorted cargoes exported from China by the Bengal and Bombay ships are articles prohibited, or subject to such duties that they are generally smuggled, and that with the knowledge and connivance of the Mandarins. There is an island near Whampoa, called French Island, where those smugglers live. Goods intended to be smuggled are sent to French Island, and notice given the night before at what hour the cargo will be brought. The Mandarins then surround the ship, and wait for the smuggling boat; when it comes alongside, they send a man in a canoe to count the packages, that no more may be brought to the ship than they have received their fee for.

How far the throwing open of the China trade will affect the Bengal trade with Canton remains to be seen; it is probable that, excepting in the article of opium, the commerce between India and China will decrease.

The following return of the shipping employed between India and Canton, will convey an idea of the relative proportion of trade carried on by each Presidency; the return is one of the latest laid before Parliament.

Years.	From British India to Canton.								From Canton to British India.							
	Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total.		Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1808—9	15	8598	2	2352	31	24991	48	35941	19	9525	7	2738	11	8642	37	20905
1809—10	13	6683	1	1200	15	12934	29	20817	12	7273	3	1517	16	12231	31	21021
1810—11	11	5605	3	3693	14	12827	28	22125	12	6428	2	820	8	5794	22	13042
1811—12	14	7466	1	80	23	17789	38	25335	14	7112	1	80	7	4626	22	11818
1812—13	7	3146	5	5550	13	13692	25	22388	12	7694	1	260	7	4324	20	12278
1813—14	24	13193	5	5789	10	10572	39	29559	12	5817	1	375	6	4476	19	10668
1814—15	25	13298	2	725	12	10811	39	24834	11	5478	1	600	13	8581	25	14659
1815—16	25	13068	4	4800	21	17070	50	34938	15	5348	1	342	9	6216	25	11906
1816—17	34	16519	4	4671	22	18022	60	39212	28	13891	..	..	11	6281	39	20172
1817—18	36	17762	2	2400	19	17310	57	37472	29	15701	4	2101	14	9206	47	27008
1818—19	30	16128	2	2767	24	20850	76	39745	22	10563	2	848	15	10095	39	21511
1819—20	18	10141	2	2532	17	16813	37	29486	10	4863	..	..	15	9010	25	13873
1820—21	29	18360	4	5375	12	8476	45	32211	16	6691	3	1534	13	6762	32	14987
1821—22	24	14323	2	2532	24	20016	50	36871	13	6023	3	1782	22	13067	38	21872
1822—23	20	12314	3	4107	25	19862	48	36283	15	6624	1	579	20	10808	36	18011
1823—24	15	10763	2	2654	17	15419	34	28836	11	5510	2	1074	11	6855	24	13439
1824—25	20	14962	3	4054	30	18854	53	37870	11	4854	14	5364	21	9856	46	20074
1825—26	22	8715	3	3912	23	17383	48	30010	17	6822	6	2841	20	12085	43	21748
1826—27	35	21724	1	667	39	26722	75	49113	14	5599	11	5087	27	15738	52	26424
1827—28	27	17079	5	5122	37	27690	69	49891	18	6159	10	5342	30	16748	58	28249
1828—29	16	11544	4	4376	36	25731	56	41651	14	5928	7	4810	30	17544	51	28282
1829—30	18	5373	4	4449	32	25709	44	35631	16	4855	9	5448	25	15604	50	25908
1830—31	25	10112	4	3178	35	26695	64	39985	20	7278	13	13704	25	17006	58	37988
1831—32	25	8485	2	872	37	16656	54	25913	20	7204	16	6711	40	29658	76	43603
1832—33																
1833—34																
1834—35																
1835—36																

TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND THE EASTERN ISLANDS

In a work of this nature, it would be impossible to enter more fully than I have already done into the detail of Indian commerce, but before closing so important a chapter, it will be necessary to shew the large trade carried on between Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, and the Eastern Islands, a trade which though it may not augment under the new system, as regards India, will probably be extended by European merchants, except in such articles as are exclusively tropical products; the articles in traffic at present are British and India piece goods, opium, indigo, spices, grain, salt, hardware, oil, &c. &c.; by the following return, which extends over 17 years, it will be observed that the quantity of treasure exported from the Eastern Islands is considerable.

Commerce between Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, & the Eastern Islands.

Years.	Imported to India.			Exported from India.		
	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1814–15	47,20,281	22,83,038	70,03,419	75,89,723	6,84,166	82,73,889
1815–16	49,89,535	22,21,379	72,10,914	73,66,091	97,265	74,63,356
1816–17	49,10,977	44,06,675	93,17,652	62,97,274	34,157	63,31,431
1817–18	36,97,502	50,86,482	87,83,984	76,12,214	96,766	77,08,980
1818–19	38,52,667	44,16,203	82,68,870	53,97,443	75,692	54,73,135
1819–20	23,57,594	54,15,575	77,72,966	61,71,066	1,92,017	63,63,083
1820–21	34,08,285	46,58,368	80,66,653	86,31,534	6,57,062	92,88,596
1821–22	38,17,259	42,84,731	81,01,990	1,11,18,071	8,82,238	1,20,00,309
1822–23	33,20,259	48,73,240	81,93,499	1,08,54,843	1,32,189	1,09,87,032
1823–24	45,37,242	30,19,204	75,56,446	93,43,665	9,30,344	1,02,74,009
1824–25	44,53,421	25,92,831	70,46,252	76,19,562	38,550	76,58,212
1825–26	29,30,705	21,53,327	50,84,032	60,78,320	61,233	61,39,553
1826–27	35,32,182	44,36,860	79,69,042	61,32,354	28,748	61,61,102
1827–28	33,98,375	31,61,492	65,59,867	69,33,159	44,132	69,77,291
1828–29	35,06,184	21,36,948	56,43,132	76,97,108	20,125	77,17,291
1829–30	26,57,987	22,72,528	49,30,515	74,66,432	1,01,920	75,68,352
1830–31	38,32,246	31,69,957	70,02,023	61,34,217	5,53,282	66,87,499
1831–32	20,23,779	12,62,052	32,85,831	27,97,192	24,732	28,21,924
1832–33						
1833–34						
1834–35						
1835–36						

It is now time to close this array of figures, which however monotonous is indispensable, to shew the valuable commerce which British India carries on—a trade which however vast at present, is not a tithe of what it may become, by England adopting a just and generous system towards the intelligent and industrious myriads so mysteriously subjected to her sway; so long as the two countries are united their interests are identified, and a partial or temporary benefit snatched at by the one, will be certainly succeeded by the punishment which sooner or later overtakes injustice.

The produce of the United Kingdom is admitted into the ports of India at a very low rate of duty,* while we place al-

* The following are the rates of duty chargeable on goods the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom imported by sea into Calcutta.

Enumeration of Goods.	British Bottom.	Foreign Bottom.
1. Bullion and Coin	free	free.
2. Horses	free	free.
3. Marine Stores	free	2½ per cent.
4. Metals, wrought and unwrought	free	2½ per cent.
5. Opium	24 rs. seer of 80 sa. wt.	48 rs. seer of 80 sa. wt.
6. Precious Stones and Pearls	free	free.
7. Salt	3 rs. a md. of 82 sa. wt. per sr.	6 rs. a md. of 82 sa. wt. per sr.
8. Spirituous Liquors	10 per cent.	2 per cent.
9. Tobacco	4 an. a md. of 80 sa. wt. per sr.	8 an. a md. of 80 sa. wt. per sr.
10. Wines	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
11. Woollens	free	2½ per cent.
Articles not included in the above 11 items.	2½ per cent.	5 per cent.

most prohibitory duties on the Hindoo agricultural or manufactured produce if exported to England; we have by this one-sided free trade beggared India, and utterly ruined several hundred thousand cotton spinners; in 1814, Bengal exported to London 2,000,000*l.* worth of cotton goods, we have not only supplanted the Hindoos in this market, but also in their own thus destroying a trade of upwards of 4,000,000*l.* value, in addition to which we must add, that by our machinery we have almost destroyed the exportation of Indian cloths to the Eastern Archipelago, to Persia, the coasts of Africa and Arabia; to the continents of Europe, and America, and estimating according to the Custom House returns, the total value of the cotton goods and yarn exported at 17,000,000*l.* sterling, we may safely assume that 10,000,000*l.* worth of the trade has been lost to the Hindoos since 1814.

British Cotton Goods and Cotton Twist exported to India and China.

Years.	White or Plain Manufactures.	Printed or Dyed Manufactures.	Total.	Cotton Twist
	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Lbs
1814	213,408	604,800	818,208	8
1815	489,399	866,077	1,355,476	....
1816	714,611	991,147	1,705,758	624
1817	2,468,024	2,848,705	5,316,729	2,701
1818	4,614,381	4,227,665	8,842,046	1,861
1819	3,414,060	3,713,601	7,127,661	971
1820	6,588,266	7,584,668	14,172,934	224
1821	9,747,496	9,976,718	19,724,214	5,865
1822	11,712,639	9,029,204	20,741,843	22,200
1823	13,576,521	9,540,813	23,117,334	121,500
1824	14,858,515	9,611,880	24,470,395	105,350
1825	14,211,496	8,826,715	23,038,211	235,360
1826	15,790,601	10,159,791	25,950,392	919,387
1827	28,582,299	14,559,134	43,141,433	3,063,968
1828	32,274,308	12,604,827	44,879,135	4,790,505
1829	34,509,009	11,424,358	45,983,367	3,190,440
1830	45,321,656	13,690,388	59,012,044	4,998,690
1831	37,672,753	15,267,035	52,939,788	6,955,623
1832	40,656,511	18,374,200	59,030,711	4,535,427
1833	43,409,342	17,132,986	60,542,328	5,038,844
1834	46,241,400	14,248,887	60,490,287	5,591,739

State of Education under the Madras Presidency, distinguishing the number of Colleges and Schools; the Hindoo from the Mussulman Scholars, and the Male from the Female Pupils. (From the latest Government Returns in 1826.)

Districts.	Schools and Colleges.	Hindoo Scholars.			Mussulman Scholars.			Total.		
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Ganjam	Schools 255	2,938	12	2,950	27	none	27	2,965	12	2,977
	Colleges .. . none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vizagapatam ..	Schools 914	9,315	303	9,618	97	none	97	9,412	303	9,715
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rajahmundry ..	Schools 291	2,569	37	2,606	52	none	52	2,621	37	2,658
	Colleges 279	1,454	—	1,454	none	—	—	1,454	—	1,454
Masulipatam ..	Schools 484	4,775	31	4,806	275	2	277	5,050	33	5,083
	Colleges 49	199	—	199	—	—	—	199	none	199
Guntoor	Schools 574	7,365	99	7,464	257	3	260	7,622	102	7,724
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nellore	Schools 804	6,946	55	7,000	617	3	620	7,563	58	7,621
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bellary	Schools 533	6,338	60	6,398	243	none	243	6,581	60	6,641
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cuddapah ..	Schools 494	5,551	107	5,658	341	1	342	5,892	108	6,000
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chingleput ..	Schools 508	6,941	116	7,057	186	none	186	7,127	116	7,243
	Sanscrit 51	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arcot, N. Division	Schools 630	7,140	41	7,181	552	11	563	7,692	52	7,744
	Colleges 69	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arcot, S. Division	Schools 875	10,167	104	10,271	252	none	252	10,419	104	10,523
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Salem	Schools 386	4,160	31	4,191	432	27	459	4,592	58	4,650
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tanjore	Schools 884	16,495	154	16,649	933	none	933	17,428	154	17,582
	Colleges 109	769	none	769	none	—	—	769	none	769
Trichinopoly ..	Schools 790	9,501	84	9,585	690	56	746	10,191	140	10,331
	Colleges 9	131	none	131	none	none	—	131	—	131
Madura	Schools 884	12,592	105	12,630	1,147	none	1,147	13,676	105	13,781
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tinnevelly ..	Schools 607	8,462	115	8,579	796	2	798	9,258	119	9,377
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coimbatore ..	Schools 673	7,812	82	7,894	312	none	312	8,124	82	8,206
	Colleges 173	724	none	724	none	—	—	724	—	724
Canara	No statement of the number of Schools.									
Malabar	Schools 759	8,767	1,068	9,835	3,196	1,122	4,318	11,963	2,190	14,153
	Colleges 1	75	none	75	none	—	none	75	none	75
Seringapatam ..	Schools 41	527	14	541	86	none	86	613	14	627
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Madras	Schools 305	4,966	127	5,093	143	none	143	5,109	127	5,236
	Charity ditto .. 17	404	49	453	10	—	10	414	49	463
	Children rec. private tuition at home.	24,756	517	25,273	1,690	none	1,690	26,446	517	26,963
	Total Schools..... 12,498									
	Total Scholars....	171,776	3,313	175,089	12,334	1,227	13,561	184,110	4,540	188,650

CHAPTER VII.

THE PRESS—EDUCATION & RELIGION, INCLUDING THE HINDOO, MUSSELMAN, PARSEE, SYRIANS, JEWS, ROMAN CATHOLICS, AND ESTABLISHED CHURCH, &c.—SLAVERY—CRIME IN INDIA AND IN ENGLAND—SOCIAL ASPECT AND GENERAL IMPROVEMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

THE PRESS.—The mighty engine which has effected such an extraordinary revolution among the inhabitants of the earth, and which by its powerful operation and almost unseen influence prevents any just parallel being drawn between ancient and modern nations, is being extended with sure and certain steps in British India, unshackled by stamp duties, undepressed by taxes on paper or on advertisements, and unimpeded by penalty bonds and securities, devoid of all censorship, and practically free for every legitimate purpose which a good citizen can require. The state of the press will be seen by the following authentic and official returns.

BENGAL.—In 1814, there existed but the *Calcutta Gov. Gazette.* In 1820, there were in addition to the foregoing, the *Bengal Hurkaru,* (Messenger) the *Indian Gazette;* the *Calcutta Journal:* and the *Monthly Journal.* The following was the return for the year 1830.

1. Calcutta Gov. Gazette.
2. Bengal Hurkaru.
3. Indian Gazette.
4. Calcutta Monthly Journal.
5. John Bull.
6. Asiatic Observer.
7. Quarterly Oriental Review.
8. B. India Mil. Repository.
9. Unit. & Christ. Miscellany.
10. Trifler.
11. Oriental Mercury.
12. Calcutta Monthly Miscel.
13. Bengal Directory.
14. Spy.
15. Bengal.
16. Weekly Gleaner.
17. Scotsman in the East.
18. Columbian Press.
19. Bengal Chronicle.
20. Oriental Observer.
21. Indian Magazine.
22. Literary Gazette.
23. Calcutta Chronicle.
24. Gospel Investigator.
25. Commercial Chronicle.
26. Bengal Herald (4 lang.)
27. Calcutta Gazette.
28. Kaleidoscope.
29. Calcutta Register.
30. Mirror of the Press.
31. Annual Keepsake.
32. Calcutta Magazine.
33. Commercial Guide.

At the present moment the following is the number and circulating state of the Calcutta Press.

ENGLISH DAILY NEWSPAPERS.

POLITICAL.	Circulation.	COMMERCIAL.	Circulation.
Bengal Hurkaru	726	Exchange Gazette	Unknown.
India Gazette	378	Daily Advertizer	
John Bull (now Englishman)	306	Tulloh's Do.	
Calcutta Courier	175	Loll Bazaar Do.	

THREE TIMES A WEEK.			TWICE A WEEK.	
Bengal Chronicle	208	All three Political.	Calcutta Courier	222
India Gazette	195			

WEEKLY.

POLITICAL.		COMMERCIAL.	
Bengal Herald	242	Commercial Price Current	Unknown.
Reformer	400	Calcutta Exchange Do.	
Inquirer	200	Domestic retail Do.	
Indian Register	200	Export and Imports Do.	

OFFICIAL.		LITERARY.	
Calcutta Gazette	(unknown.)	Calcutta Literary Gazette	338
		Oriental Observer	230

MONTHLY.

Bengal Register.		Asiatic Society Journal	200
Sporting Magazine	270	Calcutta Christian Observer	380
Monthly Journal.		E. I. United Service Journal	130

QUARTERLY.

Calcutta Quarterly Review	200	Quarterly Register.	
Bengal Army List	250	——— (name unknown.)	

ANNUAL VOLUMES.

Bengal Annual	350	Calcutta Directory	1,200
Oriental Pearl.		Bengal Do. and Almanac	1,200
Bengal Souvenir.			

Proportions of Classes who subscribe to the Daily Papers at Calcutta.

	Civil.	Military.	Medical.	Mercantile.	Legal.	Clerical.	Miscellaneous.	Gratis and Exchange.	Total.
Hurkaru and Chronicle	136	308	51	206	24	3	154	52	934
India Gazette.....	103	123	40	79	—	5	172	46	568
Calcutta Courier	69	122	15	121	—	11	4	55	397
John Bull (now Englishman)	104	81	9	—	13	14	60	25	306
Total.....	412	634	115	406	37	33	390	178	2205

In addition to the foregoing, several English Newspapers

have been established in the provinces,—viz. the *Meerut Observer*, and *Cawnpore Examiner;* the *Delhi Gazette;* the *Agra Acbar;* the *Mofussil Acbar*, &c. &c.

Of the daily English Newspapers, the *Bengal Hurkaru* may be taken as an example; it is as large as the London *Morning Post*, circulates nearly a thousand copies, has generally a page, if not more, of well paying advertisements, and its cost (independent of postage,) is 20 rupees a quarter.*

The Bengal, or rather properly speaking, the *Calcutta Native Press*,† was in—

1814, *Nil.*——————1820, *Nil.*

In 1834.

Sumachur Durpun, (Bengallee with English translations).

Bunga doot, or Bengal Herald, (Bengallee, Persian and Hindoostanee).

Britant Bauhak, (published at Bowanipoor) English and Bengallee.

Jami Jhan Numa, Persian; *Gyananneshun* and *Urmoobadika*, Bengallee; *Sumachur Chundrika*, do.; *Ooodunt Martund*, do.; *Sumbad Coomuddy*, do.; *Rutnebulli*, do.; *Subha Rajendra*, Persian; *Shumsul Ackbar*, Bengallee; *Subha Rajendra*, do.; *Sumbad Soodbaker*, do.; *Sungbad Tumul Nausack*, do; *Sungbad Sarsungroho*, Bengallee and English.

Of these papers some are published twice or thrice a-week, (one, I believe, daily) and the remainder weekly. Before leaving India, arrangements were put in progress by the Author for the establishment of a Scientific and Literary Monthly Magazine in the native languages.

It should be observed that two of the Newspapers given in the English list, (the *Reformer* and *Inquirer*) are the property of and conducted by Natives themselves with extraordinary ability. The general tone of the English Press, as also that of the Native Journals is liberal, but some of the Bengallee Newspapers are of a high orthodox nature; their prejudices are, however, ably met by their own countrymen in the *Sungbad Coomuddy*, (or Moon of Intelligence) and

* The Bengal postage of a newspaper if sent to any place within 500 miles is about 1½*d.*, and from 500 to 1,000 miles 3*d.*

† There are a great variety of *Acbars* or newspapers throughout the provinces, at the different Courts of which we do not know even the names.

other Hindoo Journals. The *Reformer* is, it is said, under the management of a distinguished, wealthy, and highly talented Hindoo, Prussunu Coomar Tagore. But to no individuals is the Indian Press under greater obligations than to the late Rammohun Roy, and the munificent Dwarkanaut Tagore.

The Madras and Bombay Press is less extensive than that of Bengal, and it has been shifting so much that we possess less accurate details of its actual state.

MADRAS.—English Periodicals—*Gazette, Courier, Hurkaru, Advertizer, The Plain Man's Friendly Visitor, Carnatic Chronicle, Literary Gazette, The Seventh Day, Commercial Circulator, Oriental Magazine, Army List, Register, Almanack, and the Mirat Ulakhbar in English and Hindostanee.*

BOMBAY — English Periodicals. — *Gazette, Courier, Iris, Guide, Commercial Advertizer, Oriental Christian Spectator, Sporting Magazine, Price Current, Calendar, Register* and *Directory.* Native Periodicals — *Na Sumachur, Persian Huckba, Manibujeka Hurkaru, Chabrook Guzarattee,* (Commercial Journal.) One Newspaper is in Mahratta and English, one is issued daily, and arrangements are in progress for publishing new papers at Bombay as well as at the other Presidencies.

As before observed, there is no stamp duty on the newspaper press of India, and it is but justice to add that when the E. I. Government recently and very properly extended the stamp laws from the Mofussil into Calcutta, they did not put any stamp on newspapers, The Censorship throughout India has been finally abolished, and the enactments on establishing a new journal are—the name and residence of the proprietor, &c. to be registered, and the following regulation complied with—'The editors of the newspapers or other periodical works in the English language are required to lodge one copy of every newspaper, regular or extra, and of every other periodical work published by them respectively, in the office of the chief secretary to the Government; and the editors of newspapers, or other periodical works in the

languages of the country, are in like manner required to lodge one copy of every newspaper or other periodical work published by them, in the office of the Persian secretary to the Government. For these copies they receive payment at the usual rate paid by regular subscribers for such publications respectively.'

The number of printing offices in different parts of India is considerable, but they are difficult to enumerate, a great many of them being managed entirely by natives. The noble establishment of Mr. Samuel Smith, at Calcutta, is a fine specimen of how much may be accomplished by the spirit and talent of a single individual: this gentleman's subscription library and reading rooms are more spacious, and enriched with a more numerous and valuable collection of books, &c. than any circulating library in this splendid metropolis; indeed, I may venture to say that it is superior to Ebers's, Bull and Churton's, and Saunders' and Ottley's combined. The library also, of Messrs. Thacker and Co. is only inferior to Mr. Smith's in size, the collection of books being exceedingly valuable.

In the native as well as in the English journals, a free discussion of the measures of Government takes place, and the improvements suggested by the press, or the complaints made through its columns, receive the ready attention of the Government, which seeks or wishes for no disguise. If no injudicious effort be made to obtain premature circulation for any speculative journal, the press of India will become as useful to the rulers as to the ruled; and if kept free from licentiousness, and private malice or scandal, it will indeed be a boon and blessing to the natives of the eastern hemisphere,* into every part of which, from Persia to China,† it is now

* Lithography, so admirably suited for the Oriental characters, has come to the aid of its elder sister, Typography; there are several establishments in Calcutta; one at Cawnpoor even, and, I believe, one has recently been set up in Persia itself.

† There are two English newspapers, a monthly journal, and, I believe, a quarterly, and two annual periodicals published in China, at Canton and Macao!

slowly but surely finding a footing, and paving the way for the final dissolution of uncontrolled despotism.

EDUCATION.

Let us now turn to the important subject of education; and although the proofs of its progress may not be so easy of demonstration as that of the public press, yet it would be unnatural to suppose that such distinguished Anglo-Indian literati as Verelst, Vansittart, Hastings, Orme, Halhed, Gladwin, Wilkins, Law, Paterson, Jones, Harrington, Wilford, Hunter, Colebrooke, Leyden, Scott, Baillie, Ross, Ellis, Franklin, Erskine, Roebuck, Lumsden, Gilchrist, Malcolm, Marsden, Elphinstone, Babington, Carey, Vans Kennedy, Parker, Macnaghten, Marshman, Wilson, Herbert, Prinsep, Tod, Mackintosh, and a host of others whom it would be tedious to mention, would not make every possible exertion for the diffusion of that knowledge of which many were, and many still are the richest possessors. It was stipulated at the last renewel of the Charter, that 10,000*l.* should be annually devoted from the surplus territorial revenue of India, to the purpose of education; by the following extract from a parliamentary return in 1832, it will be seen that the Company have doubled, and in some years trebled the amount laid down in the Act, although there was no surplus revenue in India:—

1824	£21,884	1827	£45,313	1830	£44,330	1833	£
1825	66,563	1828	35,841	1831		1834	
1826	27,412	1829	38,076	1832		1835	

As an instance of the efforts making for the diffusion of intelligence throughout the British dominions, I may quote the testimony before Parliament of the Hon. Holt Mackenzie, who states that since the renewal of the last Charter, the Bengal Government have established a college at Calcutta for the Hindoos, and reformed very much the old Moslem College; that colleges have been established at Delhi and Agra, for both Hindoos and Moslems; the Hindoo College at Benares has been reformed; at the several institutions it has been the object of Government to extend the study of

the English language, and good books have been supplied, &c.; that seminaries have been established in different parts of the country, and schools established by individuals have been aided by Government.* With respect to Bombay, Major-General Sir Lionel Smith, a veteran and distinguished King's officer, observes in his evidence before Parliament (6th Oct. 1831), 'Education is in such extensive progress, that I hardly think it could be more extended—education is also going on in the Deckan; the encouragement given by Government consists in a very liberal establishment, under the direction of an officer of very great attainments in the native languages, Capt. Jarvis.'

For the army, also, the Company have established schools, and libraries have been sent out to India for the use of the troops; and it is in frequent evidence before Parliament, that great pains are taken with the native regimental seminaries. I might quote similar testimony with respect to Madras, but perhaps the best proof that I could adduce is the statement made by that indefatigable friend of India, Sir Alexander Johnson, in his late able Report laid before the Royal Asiatic Society, namely, that in Madras, 'the proportion of the inhabitants who have been taught reading, writing, and the rudiments of arithmetic, in their own language, amount to *one in five!*'†

Now if we take the Madras population to be no better educated than that of Calcutta or Bombay, we shall actually

* The Calcutta School Book Society, from 1824-25 up to the 30th April, 1833, printed 13,000 copies of 24 Sanscrit works; 5,000 copies of seven Arabic works; 2,500 do. of five Persian authors; 2,000 do. of four Hindu do. and several other works were then in the Press. The printing charges of the Society for the foregoing period was 105,425 rupees.

† Sir Alexander also states, that the Board of Education at Madras have recently circulated an almanack, on similar principles to the British almanack published here, among the native population of the Madras presidency, at the trifling expense of 48*l.*; and that the late Colonel Mackenzie received from the East India Company 10,000*l.* for his collections on the history of the Hindoos of the Southern Peninsula. The money paid by the East India Company for Dr. Morrison's Chinese Dictionary, was 12,000*l.* sterling!

have a higher right of education in India than in any other country on earth:—

EDUCATION IN PROPORTION TO POPULATION.

In India . .	. 1	scholar to every . .	5 inhabitants.
England . . .	1	do.	15 do.
France . . .	1	do.	17 do.
United States .	1	do.	11 do.
Austria . . .	1	do.	15 do.
Prussia	1	do.	7 do.
The Netherlands.	1	do.	9 do.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN BENGAL.

The Calcutta Madrissa, or Mahomedan College was founded in 1781, by Warren Hastings, who provided a building for it at his own expense, amounting to 57,745 rupees, but which was afterwards charged to the Company. The Bengal government also, at the recommendation of Mr. Hastings, assigned lands of the estimated value of 29,000 rupees per annum, for the support of the institution, to promote the study of the Arabic and Persian languages, and of the Mahomedan law, with a view, more especially, to the production of well qualified officers for the courts of justice.

In 1791, the government of the College was placed in the hands of a Committee of Superintendence, consisting of the acting president of the Board of Revenue, the Persian Translator to Government, and the preparer of reports.

The students were divided into classes, and the following sciences to be taught:—Natural Philosophy, Theology, Law, Astronomy, Geometry, Arithmetic, Logic, Rhetoric, Oratory, Grammar.

Not more than two months' vacation allowed to the students in one year. Every Friday to be set apart for purifications and religious worship. The salaries of the preceptors and officers to be—Head Preceptor, 400 rupees per month; first Assistant, 100; second ditto, 80; third ditto, 60; fourth ditto, 30.

Each student in the five classes to receive an allowance of 15, 10, 8, 7, or 6 rupees per month, according to his class. The number of students to be regulated by the committee, and all surplus funds to be employed in the purchase of books.

In a voluminous report in 1819, of a retrospective view of the resources and expenditure of the institution, the latter amounted, from the year 1794 to the year 1818, a period of 25 years, to the sum of 4,94,197 rupees. 30,000 rupees per annum, is now guaranteed to the College out of the public treasury, instead of the institution depending upon the uncertain produce of the lands which were originally granted to it as an endowment, The public examinations which take place every year demonstrate the progress of the College.

In 1827, the study of Arabic, Mahomedan Law, and Mathematics was extended, and a Medical Class instituted. The examinations were in Arabic, Logic, Rhetoric, Philosophy, Euclid, Arithmetic, Algebra and Medicine. In 1828, an English Class was established; Skeletons and Anatomical Models and Surgical works provided. All applications for Law officers under Government were to be accompanied by certificates from the College, and a preference given to those who had acquired the English language and produced testimonials of good conduct in the College. In 1830, number of Students 99; examined 85.

Benares Hindoo Sanscrit College, established by Jonathan Duncan, Esq. the resident at Benares in 1791, as a means of employing, beneficially for the country, some part of a surplus which the public revenues yielded over their estimated amount. The expense for the first year was limited to 14,000 rupees. In the following year it was augmented to 20,000 rupees; at which amount it has been continued down to the present time. The object of this institution was the preservation and cultivation of the laws, literature and religion of the Hindoos, (and more particularly of their laws) in their sacred city; a measure which it was conceived would be equally advantageous to the natives, and honourable to the British Government among them.

The establishment originally consisted of a head pundit or rector; eight professors; nine students who enjoyed salaries; with book-keepers, writers, peons, &c. The Governor-General was constituted visitor, and the resident his deputy. Besides the scholars on the foundation, and a certain number of poor children who were to receive instruction gratis, the institution was open to all persons who were willing to pay for instruction: the teachers and students to hold their places during the pleasure of the visitor. All the professors, except the professor of medicine, to be Brahmins. The Brahmins to have preference in succession to the office of rector, or to professorships. Four examinations in the year to be held before the resident. Each professor to compose annually for the use of his students, a lecture on his respective science. Examinations into the most sacred branches of knowledge to be made by a committee of Brahmins. Courses of study to be prepared by the professors. The internal discipline to be in all respects conformable to the Dherma Shastra, in the chapter on education.

The prescribed course of studies in this college to comprehend,

Theology, Ritual, Medicine including Botany, &c. Music, Mechanic Arts, Grammar, Prosody, and Sacred Lexicography, Mathematics, Metaphysics, Logic, Law, History, Ethics, Philosophy, and Poetry.

The Calcutta Hindoo Sanscrit College, dates its establishment from 1821 For the support of this institution, the annual sum of 30,000 rupees has been allowed by Government, and 1,20,000 rupees has also been allotted

for the erection of a college. The establishment consists of 14 Pundits, a Librarian and servants, 100 scholars on the foundation, and a Secretary.

The sum of 1,200 rupees is reserved for distribution in prizes at the public examination, and a school for Hindoo children is connected with the college.

In 1823 the Bengal Government formed a *General Committee of Public Instruction at Calcutta*, for the promoting of education and of the improvement of the morals of the natives of India.

The annual sum of one lac of rupees, which, by by the 53 Geo. III., c. 155, was appropriated to the purposes of education was placed at their disposal. The schools at Chinsurah, Rajpootana, and Bhaugulpore, were placed under the control of this committee, and the separate grants which had been made to those schools, amounting together to 16,800 rupees per annum, were discontinued from the 1st January 1824.

The total amount placed at the disposal of the General Committee of Public Instruction in the years from 1821-22 to 1825-26 was, S. R. 4,78,400.

Agra College. In 1822, the Governor-General in Council sanctioned the institution of a college at Agra; the sum of 42,501 Rs. was for the erection of the college; an expenditure of 15,420 Rs. authorised, and the number of students in the college was in 1826—117; 1827—210; in 1830—203; of whom 73 received stipendiary allowances.

Delhi College, similar to the foregoing by its adaptation to useful instruction. In 1827 the number of students was 204; in 1828—199; and in 1829-152; the reduction being owing to a discouragement of pecuniary or stipendiary grants to pupils.

Vidalaya or Anglo-Indian College. "This highly interesting and promising institution," it is stated, "owes its origin to the intelligence and public spirit of some of the opulent native gentlemen of Calcutta, who associated together in 1816, and subscribed a capital sum of Rs. 1,13,179, to found a seminary for the instruction of the sons of Hindoos in the European and Asiatic languages and sciences. It was placed under the superintendence of the General Committee, as the condition of pecuniary aid, to the amount of 300 rupees per month, for house-rent, afforded to it out of the Education Fund. This institution has a growing popularity and decided superiority, on its present footing, over any other affording tuition to the natives in the English language; a select library of books has been sent from England, and some additional philosophical apparatus. The number of scholars, all male, is stated at 200; and so long, the committee add, as such a number, all respectably connected, "can be trained, in useful knowledge and the English language, a great improvement may be confidently anticipated in the intellectual character of the principal inhabitants of Calcutta." In order to secure the continued attendance of the

more promising pupils, and to enable them to complete their course of study, a limited number of scholarships has been endowed by the Government. The number of pupils were in January 1826—196; in 1827—372; July 1826—280; 1828—437 (of whom 100 received gratuitous education.) The number is still on the increase.

English College. The Government sanctioned the establishment of a distinct *English College*, for the admission of a certain number of the more advanced pupils from the Hindoo and Mahommedan colleges, for gratuitous instruction in literature and science, by means of the English language; for which purpose the Education Fund could afford an income of Rs. 24,000 per annum.

The Bishop's College near Calcutta A grant of land, of about 20 acres, was made by the Government in India, for the purposes of the College, to which a farther grant has since been made. It stands about three miles below Calcutta, in a fine situation, on the opposite bank of the river Hooghly, which is there much wider than the Thames at London. The spot is peculiarly favourable for privacy and retirement: and the scenery is such," Bishop Middleton observes, "as to gratify and soothe the mind."

The foundation stone of the college was laid, on the 15th of December, 1820, by Bishop Middleton. The Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, transmitted to Dr. Middleton the sum of 5,000*l.* to enable him to commence the work; 5,000*l.* were contributed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; 5,000*l.* more were voted by the Church Missionary Society; and the British and Foreign Bible Society had added 5,000*l.* This sum of 20,000*l.* was augmented by collections in all the churches in England and Wales, in consequence of a "King's Letter," which amounted to 45,000*l.* with which the building has been completed.

The College consists of three piles of buildings, in the plain Gothic style. These buildings forms three sides of a quadrangle; the fourth, or south side, being open to the river, which in that part flows nearly from E. to W. The pile which fronts the river consists of the college chapel to the E., divided by a tower from the hall and library on the W. The buildings on the E. and W. sides of the quadrangle contain the apartments for a principal and two professors, with lecture rooms, and rooms for the students. The whole is formed on the plan of combining comfort and convenience with an elegant simplicity.

Bishop's College is under the immediate direction of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; but the statutes are so framed as to afford opportunity both to the Government in India and to the religious societies connected with the Church of England, of obtaining, under certain

regulations, the benefits of the college for such students as they may place there.

For the regular supply of students, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, has adopted the measure stated in the following extract from a late report:—"Ten theological scholarships and ten lay scholarships have been formed by the society, for native or European youths educated in the principles of Christianity; and the sum of 1,000*l.* per annum has been appropriated to this special purpose. The ordinary age of admission of fourteen

The Christian Knowledge Society assists in this plan of scholarship; having placed the sum of 6,000*l.* at the disposal of the Gospel Propagation Society, for the purpose of endowing five scholarships, to be called, in memory of the founder of the College, "Bishop Middleton's Scholarships." This grant is also intended to provide a salary for a Tamul teacher in the College, that being the language chiefly used in the Society's missions.

The Church Missionary Society voted a grant of 1,000*l.* per annum for several years, on account of the importance of the institution, and of the co-operation it afforded in their department of labour in India.

In 1830, the Directors of Bishop's College have upwards of 50,000*l* in the 3½ per cents., as a fund towards the support of that institution. There are upon that foundation a principal, two professors, eight missionaries, two catechists, and a printer

The College Council consists of three professors, and attached to the College are four European Missionaries.

The foregoing abstract of the Colleges in Bengal is sufficient to convey an idea of the good intentions of the Government in furthering education. There are various primary and elementary schools, viz. at Chinsurah (where there are 1,200 scholars); at Ajmeer (in which school there are 200 boys); Boglipoor school (134 pupils); Cawnpore (75 scholars); Allahabad (50 ditto);* Dacca (25 schools and 1,414 pupils); Mynpoory College, Etawah (40); Bareilly (131 schools, 300 seminaries, with 3,000 pupils); and an established College, with 50 students. The following statement respecting Bareilly is full of interest:

In 1827, the local agents in Bareilly, Messrs. S. M. Boulderson, J. Davidson, and C. Bradford, were required to report "what schools, col-

* It is proposed to establish an English College at Allahabad.

leges, or seminaries of any description whatever, existed in the towns or villages" of that district. In reply they informed the Education Committee, that in the town of Bareilly there were 101 schools in which Persian was taught, and 20 in which the children of the Malinjims were taught accounts; besides which there were 11 persons who taught Arabic, and two who taught the science of medicine; that in the villages round about Bareilly there were nine Hindoo schools and 13 Persian; and in other parts of the district as follows:—

In the thannah of Bhoora, 4 P.;* in Ichonadab, 3 P. 3 H*.; in the town of Budaou, 34 P., besides the College of Mahasnood Ally: in the neighbouring villages, 6 P. 1 H.; in Kusbah Furreedpore, 8 P.; in the neighbouring villages, 8 P.; in Kusbah Besulpore, 2 H.; in the neighbouring villages, 7 H.; in the thannah of Dettagunge, 6 P. 2 H.; in Riche, 1 H.; in the adjoining villages, 11 H.; in the Busten Ojahnee, 1 P. 2 H.; in the villages adjoining, 2 P. 16 H.; in the town of Omlah, 8 P. 21 H.; in the adjoining villages, 6 P.; in the thannah of Bilsee, 4 P. 3 H.; in the town of Shagusti, 1 P.; in the villages of the Pergunnah, 3 P. 1 H.; in the thannah of Nawaubgunge, 5 P. 32 H.; in the Busten of Sheergicoli, 2 P.; in the neighbouring villages, 10 P.; and that in a village of the same thannah there were resident three learned men who taught the Arabic sciences, and in the thannah of Meergunge, 3 P. 4 H.

"In these schools," the local agents observe, "science of any sort is rarely studied. Works in the Persian language, such as the Bostan, Golistan, Zalicka, Madhooram Aboolfuzul, Secundernameh, Tusha Kheeleefa, Bahardanisli, are read, with a view to facility in writing Persian; besides this, the scholars are instructed in the simplest rules of arithmetic. In the colleges, the works read are in the Arabic language. The course of study includes Surf, Neho, Mautick, Laws of Composition, Fikha Kikmut, under which are included medicine, mathematics, and natural philosophy, the Buddus, and the explanations of the Koran; besides there, there are schools in which the children of Mahajans and those intended for putwarries are taught accounts; those who study the Hindoo sciences read the Vedas, the Shastres, the Poorans, Beakam Jotuh Chelum Naryul, Ojoosh Bed, Memansa, Neari. We have not heard that there are any establishments for such scholars in the villages.

"In the schools in which Persian is taught, the boys read manuscript copies of the different books, and learn to write on boards.

"Hindoos and Mussulmans have no scruples about reading together. The teachers are almost always Syeds, Sheiks, Moguls, Patans or Kaits.

"The teachers are paid from three to seven rupees a month by the person at whose house they sit; they also get their meals twice a day; and

* P. Persian, and H. Hindoo.

surance, that is, a kubba, razaee, toshak and bolaposh. Kubba and razee are regularly given every year, whether the old one be worn out or not; the tushak and bolaposh are sometimes given, sometimes not. Summer clothing is also sometimes given, but rarely. Those who do not pay a teacher for attending at their own houses, send their children to the houses of those who entertain one, and pay the teacher from four annas to one rupee monthly, according to their means; besides this, the master gets other perquisites, such as 'jummajee' offerings, presented on Thursday evenings by each boy, from four gundahs to one and five annas; 'aghazee' offerings, presented on beginning a new book, from five annas to one and a half rupee; 'eidic,' presented on holidays, from one anna to one rupee. The boys begin to study at six years of age sometimes, but seldom till 20;* in the colleges, from 14 to 25, sometimes 30, sometimes much less, it depending upon the talents and inclination of the students. Those who learn Persian, viz. boys till the age of 14 and 15, never remain under the roof of the master; on the contrary, he generally attends at the house of some person or other, where he instructs the children of the master of the house, and those of others. Schools in which accounts are taught differ in no material respect from Persian ones. Those who teach Arabic have sometimes pupils who come from a distance residing under their roof; but those who live in the same town remain in their parents' house. It is considered improper to take any thing from Arabic students, unless from necessity. The schools in the towns are well attended in comparison with those of the villages; we have heard of no schools supported by public grants."

In Delhi district there are about 300 elementary schools, in several of which the Preceptors receive no pay, but teach '*gratis, in hope of Heaven.*' There are a great variety of other colleges and schools in Kidderpore, Burdwan, Moorshedabad, Hooghly, Nuddea, Rajishaye, Calcutta Benevolent schools (250 pupils of both sexes): Infant schools in various districts, under the Committee of Management at Calcutta; Sylhet, Chittagong, Beaspoor, &c. independent of regular schools, and private or missionary seminaries. The Missionary Societies maintain schools at their respective stations. The following are maintained by them under this Presidency;—

By the *London Society.*—At *Calcutta,* and out stations, Bengallee schools, for boys, 11; for girls, 4—15. At *Chin-*

* It is thus in the official document.

surah—Bengallee, for boys, 2. At *Berhanpore*—Bengallee, for boys, 1; for girls, 1—2. At *Benares*—Hindui, for boys, 4. By the *Baptist Society*.—At *Calcutta*, and out stations, for boys, 2; for girls, 22—24. At *Cutwa*, for girls, 4. At *Sewry*, for boys, 4; for girls, 4—8.

STATE OF EDUCATION AT MADRAS.

The reports in detail from this Presidency are not numerous, but to compensate in some measure, we have a more complete return than from any of the other Presidencies relative to the males and females at each school, distinguishing the Hindoo from the Mussulman scholars. This return will be found affixed to this Chapter. A summary of the report states, that the schools are for the most part supported by the people who send their children to them for instruction, the rate of payment for each scholar varying in different districts, and, according to the circumstances of the parents of the pupils, viz. from one anna (three-halfpence) to four rupees (eight shillings) a month, the ordinary rate of the poorer classes being generally four annas, and seldom exceeding eight annas. There are endowed schools, or teachers, in the following districts:—

Rajamundry—69 teachers of the sciences, endowed with land, and 13 receiving allowances in money.

Nellore—several Brahmins and Mussulmans, receiving 1,467 rupees *per annum* for teaching the Vedas, Arabic, and Persian.

Arcot—28 colleges and six Persian schools.

Salem—20 teachers of Theology and one Mussulman school.

Tanjore—77 colleges and 44 schools, supported by His Highness the Rajah.

Trichinopoly—seven schools.

Malabar—one college.

Endowments for purposes of education in other districts have unfortunately been appropriated to other purposes.

The Missionary Societies maintain the following schools, under this Presidency:—

The *London Society.*—At *Madras,* and out stations, Tamil, for boys, 14; girls, 2; boys and girls, 2—18. *Tripassoor*—Tamil, boys and girls, 2; English, boys and girls, 2—4. *Vizagapatam*—Teloogoo, boys and girls, 11. *Cuddapah*—Teloogoo, boys and girls, 8. *Chittoor*—Teloogoo and Tamil, for boys, 7; girls, 1—8. *Belgaum,* and out stations—Mahratta and Tamil, for boys, 7; for girls, 1—8. *Bellary*—Canarese and Tamil, for boys, 12; for girls, 1—13. *Bangalore,* with out stations—Canarese, Mahratta, Teloogoo, and Tamil, for boys, with a few girls, 7. *Salem*—Tamil, Teloogoo, and English, boys, 7. *Comboconum*—Tamil, for boys, 12; for girls, 1—13. *Coimbatoor*—Tamil, for boys, 5. *Nagercoil,* with out stations—Tamil, for boys, 46; for girls, 4—50. *Neyoor,* with out stations—Tamil, for boys, 50; for girls, 1—51. *Quilon*—Malayalim, for boys, 14; for girls, 10—24. The *Wesleyan Missionary Society,*—At *Madras,* 14. *Bangalore,* 6. *Negapattam* and *Melnattam,* 8.

A committee of public instruction has been formed at Madras on the model of that of Bengal, and much good has already been affected by the same.

STATE OF EDUCATION AT BOMBAY.

The Government of this Presidency has not been behind hand in promoting the blessing of education. In July, 1828, a circular letter was issued to the several collectors under the Bombay Government, calling upon them to report annually to the Foujdarry Adawlut the number of schools in their collectorates, the number of boys attending each, and the mode in which education was conducted, also the mode in which printed tracts were sought after and disposed of. In October, 1829, these reports having been received, the Registrar of the Adawlut was instructed to forward to the Government a general report of the state of education in the provinces of the Bombay Presidency, framed from the infor-

mation conveyed in the statements of the several collectors, and suggesting the means which, in the opinion of the Judges, were most likely to promote and improve the education of the natives of India.

First, by a gradual extension of schools on an improved principle, either by affording the patronage of Government to native schoolmasters, on condition of their improving their system, or by the establishment of new schools in populous places at the expense of Government: and,

Secondly, by the gratuitous distribution of useful books, such as 'books of arithmetic, short histories, moral tales, distinct from their own false legends, natural history, and some short voyages and travels.'

Periodical examinations the Judges recommend to be held with caution, as likely to excite alarm, and when voluntarily submitted to by the schoolmasters, to be accompanied by liberal rewards to the scholars for proficiency, 'as showing the interest the Government takes in the proceedings, and as a mode of encouragement which would seem upon common principles likely to be attended with a good result.'

This report is accompanied by the following 'Statement of the Schools and Scholars in the different Collectorships.'

Native Education Society. The committee of this noble institution (voluntarily formed in 1815, and composed in nearly equal proportions of Europeans and natives) at a meeting, 12th April, 1831, stated that its aggregate receipts and disbursements within the year amounted to between 70,000 and 80,000 rupees; that it has constantly on sale more than 40 publications in the native languages, many of them the produce of the Bombay lithographic and other presses, of which former mode of printing favourable specimens are appended to the reports; and that it has under its controul and management the several schools and establishments described in the following paragraphs:—

In the central school 250 boys have been through a course of study in the English language; 50 have left it with a competent knowledge of the language, consisting of an acquaintance with geography, mathematics,

and geometry. In Bombay, the boys in the Mahratta school have amounted to 954, and in Guzzerattee to 427. At present, there are altogether 56 of the society's schools, each containing about 60 boys, amounting in the whole to 3,000 boys under a course of education.

This report contains the following further particulars:—

Your committee observe that the boys who have made the greatest progress in the English schools are the Hindoos; they are left longer in the schools by their parents than other boys, who, though equally intelligent and quick, are more irregular in their attendance. Few or no Mahomedan boys ever enter the schools.

In 1826, there were in the Society's school at Bombay, 367 boys *boarders*, and 228 girls ditto; and there were of day scholars 268 Christians, and 472 natives. In Surat school, 3 Christians and 48 natives, and the regular schools 183 pupils.

There is a Hindoo college at Poona, at which premiums are awarded to the most deserving students. An admirable Engineer College has been formed at Bombay, at which, according to the latest return, there were 86 students entertained and instructed.

Schools and Scholars at Bombay.

DISTRICTS.		Schools—Master paid by Government.	No. of Scholars.	Village Schools.	No. of Scholars.	Total Schools.	Total Scholars.
Deccan.	Poona	5	266	304	4651	309	4917
	Ahmednuggur	4	232	164	2906	168	3138
	Candeish	2	59	112	1610	114	1669
Guzzerat.	Surat	2	96	188	4068	190	4164
	Broach	2	75	24	967	26	1042
	Kaira	2	157	82	3024	84	3181
	Ahmedabad	3	127	88	3226	91	3353
Concan.	Northern Concan	2	188	135	2490	137	2678
	Southern ditto	1	21	285	6700	282	6721
	Darwar	2	94	302	4196	304	4290
		25	1315	1680	33838	1705	35153

In May, 1830, the Education Society reported 25 schoolmasters, 11 Mahrattas, and 14 Guzzerattees, ready to commence their duties as teachers in the various schools in the Deccan, in Guzzerat, and in the two Concans. They had

acquired an accurate knowledge of their own languages, and were so far acquainted with the higher branches of the mathematics as to entitle them to be considered teachers of the second order. Sations were proposed for them by the Society, to which they were sent by the Government.

In 1829, there were 44 students quitting the institution to enter on professional employment, of whom there were—Europeans, 7; Mahratta, 32; Guzzerattee, 5. Mathematical instruments, &c., are supplied by the E. I. Company.

The following very condensed abstract relative to the number of the schools under the Bombay Presidency (according to circular queries in 1825) and the mode in which the teacher is remunerated, will be perused with much interest.

Official Returns (Abstract) of the Schools under the Bombay Presidency.

Districts.	Number of Schools and Scholars.		Allowances to Schoolmasters, and from what Source derived.
	Schools.	Scholars.	
Ahmedabad.	City.....21 Villages..63 ..84 ..	Brahmins 2 Ditto 408 Wannees...1,080 Kombees524 17 other castes 480 In Goga 157 Total 2,651	..The manner of remunerating teachers is exceedingly various, each village having a mode peculiar to itself. The more general practice is, for each boy to present daily about a handful of flour. A sum of from one to five rupees is also usually paid on his leaving school. The parents also pay about one rupee and a half on the boy being perfect in the first 15 lessons. A similar sum on his acquiring a perfect knowledge of the alphabet, and another similar sum when he is able to write, to cast up accounts, and to draw out bills of exchange. The office of schoolmaster is generally hereditary.
Concan.....	86 (58 in private dwellings, and 28 in temples.)	1,590 of all castes, including 567 Bramins, and no girls.	..Pecuniary payments, amounting to about four rupees a month upon an average (a salary which is stated to be perfectly inadequate for efficient instruction); it is also customary in Hindoo schools, for each child to give two nutwars of rice per month, and the shewoo pice, or two pice, to the teachers on every great Hindoo holiday; but this custom is not invariably observed.
Kaira Dist..	139 badly conducted	seldom more than 100 boys in each school, in general much less.	..The boys daily, when they quit the school in the evening, present a handful of grain, seldom exceeding a quarter of a seer; and when they finally leave the school make the master a present of two or three rupees. Boys of respectable families also give half a rupee on first entering the school, and on days of ceremony send him a meal of grain and ghee. They also sometimes beg for him from respectable visitors. Total of income between 40 and 100 rupees.
KairaSudder Station..	2 The education does not extend beyond the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic.	230 average number of all classes.	..The office confined in Brahmins, though not hereditary. They receive generally seven seers of grain monthly from the parents of each boy, and five rupees in cast when he is withdrawn from school.

Districts.	Number of Schools and Scholars. Schools.	Scholars.	Allowances to Schoolmasters, and from what Source derived.
Concan	9	390	Rs.
	Govt..... 1	120	Fixed pay from Government per month . . 60
	Charitable 2	90	Ditto from American Missionary Society . . 26
	Hindoo....3	160	Various Allowances from Parents between per month,
	Mahom....3	80	Rs. 40 and 3. 3.
Surat Zillah. (exclusive of alienated villages).	139	average about 3000.	.. Total Emoluments:
			Flour . . . . . Rs. 915 1 61
			Cash . . . . 4,122 19 to 5,052 2 19
			Service lands 135 3 0
			Total Rs. . . 5,163 2 80 to 6,103 2 80
Zurat Town.	Hindoo...42	2,222	.. Each master receives about 60 rupees per annum,
	Pundits ..18	66	for 50 boys in grain and money.
	Mahom .. 20	471	
Broach Zillah.....	Moollas.. 56	287	
	in Cusbas 13	Not stated	.. In the townships they receive their recompense chiefly from the parents. There are, in some cases, fixed allowances or from 30 to 70 rupees. In others a daily present of one quarter of a seer of grain, and payments in money upon the scholars attaining to a certain state of proficiency. In the villages the mode of remuneration is usually similar to that adopted in the townships; but the fixed annual allowances are as low as 20 rupees, and scarcely ever exceed 50 rupees.
	Villages.. 85		
BroachTown	16	373	.. The schoolmaster's allowances are derived from the parents of the children, and consist of a small quantity of grain daily presented by the pupil. A few pice in the course of the month, half a rupee or a rupee at the different stages of advancement. The income of a schoolmaster never averages more than from 3 to 5 rupees monthly, and is precarious.
Kandeish...	Hindoo Elementary..95	2,022 (being in the proportion of 1 to 18, the number of male inhabitants, being 36,881.	.. The schoolmaster's allowances are all derived from the scholars, and supposed to average not more than 36 rupees per annum for each school.
	Superior...75		
	170		
	Mahom... 19		
	Total 189		

Under this Presidency the London Missionary Society maintains the following schools. At *Surat*—Goojurattee, for boys, 4; girls, 1—5. At *Darwan*—Tamil, 2.

The following extract from the evidence of the Hon. Holt Mackensie's recent evidence before Parliament on this important subject, is worth rescuing from the voluminous mass of official documents in which it lies buried.

Will you state more particularly any new way that you consider will facilitate the education of these persons?—Already a good deal has been done by government. In the colleges at Calcutta especially, the system of education has been much improved. Besides their own learning, many of the students are now attending to English: mathematics particularly

are cultivated; and there is a gradually extending acquisition of general knowledge. By pursuing the system, by establishing more seminaries under proper superintendence, by supplying instructive books, and especially by promoting the acquisition of the English language and science, we may soon give to the educated classes more enlarged notions, notions that will certainly fit them better for communicating and co-operating with us.

At this moment what are the means of education for the native judges, and especially the sudder aumeens?—For the Moslems there is the Mudrissa or College at Calcutta, in which law and all branches of Mahomedan learning have long been taught; and, more recently established, there are academies at Agra and Delhi, where both Mussulmen and Hindoos receive a more popular education. The Hindoo law is taught in government colleges at Calcutta and Benares. The students who are admitted on the foundation of the government colleges are selected on a competition of candidates; and most of them, after passing through the prescribed course of study at those institutions, obtain certificates that they have acquired such a knowledge of law as to qualify them for the situation of law officers in any of the established courts; to which, if appointed, they become, as I have mentioned, *ex officio*, sudder aumeens. A similar testimonial is required from all candidates for the situation of law officer, wheresoever educated. The other sudder aumeens and the moonsiffs are appointed on a general report of their being qualified for the trust; and for both classes there exist, independently of government institutions, various means of education common to Hindoos and Mahomedans, more or less efficient. There are schools of which the masters live by the fees of their scholars, as in this country. Teachers entertained by individuals usually instruct the children of neighbours; and throughout the country, almost every man noted for learning is himself an instructor of youth. I do not remember hearing of any celebrated doctor or pundit who had not young men waiting upon them as pupils, and learning the law and other sciences at their feet. In this way a great many young men are educated in almost every district; but it is not easy to say the precise extent to which instruction is thus conveyed.

Do the pupils pay the teacher?—Not generally for instruction of a highly learned character. Those who teach merely Persian or Hindee either take fees from their scholars, or are paid by the heads of the families in which they are employed. But men at all celebrated for learning, and indeed most of the instructors in Arabic and Sanscrit, usually give tuition gratis; often, indeed, feeding and clothing their pupils: and at the government institutions there are a considerable number of students who get a small allowance for their support, it having always been the practice of native colleges that the student should not pay, but be supported. The

habits of the people being very moderate, a few shillings suffice for the support of a student. The rank and reputation of a man of learning are promoted by his having many pupils: and both masters and scholars in many cases get presents on occasions of solemnity; it being indeed no disgrace to a poor student to beg.

These pupils, then, are not of use to their teachers as they advance?—I never heard that they were of any use. The men of learning who gather pupils about them look more to the reputation of the thing than to any thing else.

Perhaps in that way promoting their employment?—Chiefly in promoting their rank in society.

Now with respect to the allowance in the Government College, is that allowance made by government?—Yes. A part of the general fund is appropriated to the support of a certain number of students. It has been an object with us latterly to encourage the attendance of students who are willing to attend, without pay, for the sake of learning; but with reference to the usages of the people, the change can only be made gradually.

Mr. Mackensie adds,—

I believe that all endowments which existed when we acquired the country were maintained; but in the Bengal provinces there were few, if any, that could properly be called institutions established by the government for the purpose of instruction. Particular Brahmins and other learned men frequently had allowances on the condition of communicating instruction: these have been continued where the grant of the former government appeared to be perpetual. Where the grant was personal, it has ordinarily lapsed with the death of the party.

The Calcutta Education Press (now the Baptist Mission Press) has been productive of much good; between July, 1824, and February, 1830, the number of native works produced at this press were—

	Finished.		In Hand.		Finished.		In Hand.
Sanscrit	15	—	3	Hindi	3	—	0
Arabic	2	—	5	Persian	4	—	1

The total value of the works was Rs. 58,890. *The Calcutta School-Book Society* had published 38 volumes on important subjects, in the several Indian languages, as follows:—

In Sanscrit	3	Persian	5	Anglo-Persian	3
Bengallee	9	Hindostanee	1	Anglo-Hindostanee	2
Hindee	3	Anglo-Bengallee	3	English	6
Arabic	2	Anglo-Hindee	1		38

Of the foregoing elementary and standard volumes, there were 28,671 copies circulated in 1828 and in 1829, as follows:

Of Reports	651	Arabic	117
Sanscrit Books	177	Persian	1,907
Bengallee	10,074	Hindostanee	1,173
Hindee	2,452	English	9,616
Ooriya	200	Anglo-Asiatic	2,304
		Total	28,671

Of the Serampore Missionaries (particularly Drs. Carey* and Marshman) it is impossible to speak in sufficiently laudatory terms, without hurting the feelings of those amiable pioneers of civilization. They have 27 missionary stations, containing 47 missionaries, spread over an immense extent of country. It is truly observed that 'the missionaries sent from Serampore are prepared for their labours at a moderate expense; they are generally content with a style of living which persons brought up in Europe could not endure without loss of health, and every member of the mission is taught, not only that it is lawful, but desirable, for him to secure the means of his own support, by any employment which does not obstruct his usefulness.'

Shortly before leaving India, I visited the College at Serampore, and was really at a loss which to admire most, the active industry, skill and intelligence put in operation, or the profound and unaffected piety which pervaded the whole establishment. In one part of the College types in every language were being cast; in another a capital steam-engine was plying its powerful machinery for the manufacture of excellent paper; in a third place were numerous compositors employed on books, pamphlets, newspapers, school tracts, hymns, catechisms, &c., and in a fourth spot printers, ink-

* Since the first edition of this work went to press, Dr. Carey has descended, full of honours, to the grave. An interesting memoir of this venerable character will be found in the 'Gentleman's Magazine' for April, 1835, written by Mr. Fisher. The translation of the Scriptures into the native languages by Dr. Carey will be found detailed at page 317.

makers, binders, &c. &c.—all, in fact, was peace, harmony, and holiness.*

The English language is making rapid strides, in every part of India; a recent Bengal newspaper, the *Sumachur Durpun* (which has been established by the Serampore missionaries, one half being in the English, and the other half translations into the Bengallee) states that, with the view of encouraging the study of this language, Lord W. Bentinck has adopted it in his correspondence with Fyz Mahomed Khan, one of the native chiefs in the West, which has created a considerable sensation in Delhi. A demand for English tutors and secretaries is already perceptible. The teacher who recently resigned his situation in the Delhi College, said he could easily get a tutorship and secretaryship under a native prince. Mr. Rennel, of the collector's office, having been discharged, has also the offer of a situation from a native prince. Kishenlall has already engaged an English teacher for his two sons, whom he intends to make secretaries to Fyz Mahomed Khan. Lord William's letters in English to the native chiefs, are likely to draw their attention to the acquisition of English. As soon as the chiefs begin to study the language, or make their sons do so, the use of English will become general.

From the Bombay Durpun, we also learn that the English language is much more generally sought among the natives than at any former period. Besides the school at Poona, the Central English school of the Native Education Society has 100 students, and to this number the school is limited. (The missionaries, with the assistance of the Government, have recently established one English school, and the Government are about instituting another.) There are, however, numerous private schools on the island, in which the total number of youths learning English, will be found to be several hundreds.

* It is stated in the Serampore account, that, since 1825, from 40,000 to 50,000 *volumes* or pamphlets (not *copies* of them) have been thrown into circulation by the native press!

Another journal subsequently observes—We learn that his Majesty of Oude has recently established an English school at Lucknow, and placed it under the controul of Major Low; the number of scholars that now attend daily, amount to from 30 to 40, the majority of whom are the descendants of Christians, the rest Hindoos and Mahomedans.

It rests not on my individual testimony, but it is in evidence before Parliament, that the natives have not only shewn a great anxiety to obtain a knowledge of the English language, but that they have also evinced considerable proficiency in the same; the truth of the following extract from the recent Parliamentary Committee on the East India affairs, can be attested by hundreds of persons now in Europe.

Some of the students, who have completed their education in the Hindoo College and other institutions, are in the habit of holding debating societies, where they discuss topics of considerable importance in the English language, and read lectures and essays of their own composition, upon various literary and scientific subjects. At one of the meetings above mentioned, the question for discussion was, 'Whether posthumous fame be a rational principle of human action or not.' It is true that the debate soon branched off into a consideration of the possibility and probability of human perfection; but the orators spoke with remarkable fluency, quoting Gibbon, Hume, Reid, Bolingbroke, Voltaire, Shakspeare, Milton, &c. The forms of similar meetings in England were imitated; and the chairman having inquired the reason of the secretary's absence, a loud cry of 'Persecution!' was raised, and it was explained that he was prevented from attending by his father, who was afraid that his principles of paganism should be corrupted, in consequence of the other members being deists.

In corroboration of the foregoing, I may mention that I have found many of the Hindoo youths more accurately acquainted with English standard authors than is readily to be met with in England; they have now got up English playhouses, in which Shakespear and the productions of the best British dramatists are acted with astonishing spirit.*

* A Literary Society has been recently organized by the learned Hindoos at Madras, and placed in communication with the Royal Asiatic Society of London; by late arrivals I am informed that an Horticultural Society has been formed at Agra;—other institutions will doubtless spring up rapidly.

STATE OF RELIGION AND CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA.

The government of British India possesses a feature which has rarely or never been found in any nation or in any age, I allude to its *toleration* of every mode or form of religion in which different sects may choose to adore the Creator; to its *protection* against hostility, forcible opposition or oppression by one rival sect against another, and to its *auxiliary* pecuniary *aid* when solicited by any congregation or community.

The Hindoo religion is of course the creed of the vast majority of the people; although now a gross system of *polytheism* adapted to the rudest capacities and appealing to or exciting merely sensual passions, there are various evidences in proof that it was once an almost pure system of *monotheism*, on which was subsequently engrafted the Hindoo *trimurti* or Triad. Thus BRAHM, (God), is among almost innumerable definitions acknowledged in the *vedas*, or sacred writings of the Hindoos, as *the Almighty infinite, eternal, incomprehensible, self-existent Being: He who sees everything, though never seen: He who is not to be compassed by description: who is beyond the limit of human conception, and from whom the universal world proceeds: whose work is the universe, and who is the Lord of the universe: He who is the light of all lights, whose name is too sacred to be pronounced, and whose power is too infinite to be imagined: The one unknown, true Being, the Creator, the Preserver, the Destroyer of the universe!*

These sublime ideas of *the* Deity *(Brahm!)* (who amidst the multitudinous worship of 330,000,000 of gods, has never been desecrated by an image or even temple, and whom the Hindoos dare not even name;) have been often mentioned to me by the late distinguished Rammohun Roy, who in conjunction with a few of his brethren in Calcutta, endeavoured to restore the pure and ancient form of Hindoo monotheism, by the establishment of an institution devoted to the simplest worship of the one, indivisible, invisible, omnipotent, and omnipresent God; the regulations for the conducting of this worship the writer of this work drew up, and the following is part of

the trust deed prepared at the suggestion of Rammohun Roy, in Calcutta, in 1829;* it is a singular instance of a desire to discard the gross idolatry of a once primitive form of religion.

Trust Deed.—Upon trust and in confidence that they the said [*Here follow the names of the Trustees*] or the survivors or survivor of them, shall, at all times, permit the said building, land, tenements, hereditaments, and premises, with their appurtenances, to be used, occupied, enjoyed, applied, and appropriated, as, and for a place of Public Meeting, of all sorts and descriptions of people without distinction, as shall behave and conduct themselves in an orderly, sober, religious, and devout manner, for the worship and adoration of the Eternal, Unsearchable, and Immutable Being, who is the Author and Preserver of the Universe, but not under, or by any other name, designation, or title, peculiarly used for and applied to any particular Being or Beings, by any man or set of men whatsoever; and that *no graven image, statue, or sculpture, carving, painting, picture, portrait, or the likeness of any thing*, shall be admitted within the messuage, building, &c., and that no sacrifice, offering, or oblation of any kind or thing shall ever be permitted therein; and that no animal or living creature shall, within or on the said messuage, building, land, tenements, hereditaments, and premises, be deprived of life, either for religious purposes, or for food; and that no eating or drinking (except such as shall be necessary by any accident for the present preservation of life), feasting or rioting, be permitted therein or thereon; and that in conducting the said worship or adoration, no object animate or inanimate that has been, or is, or shall hereafter become, or be recognised as an object of worship by any man, or set of men, shall be *reviled*, or *slightingly or contemptuously spoken of*, or alluded to, either in preaching, praying, or in the hymns, or other mode of worship that may be delivered, or used in the said messuage or building; and that no sermon, preaching, discourse, prayer, or hymn be delivered, made, or used in such worship, but such as have a tendency to the promotion of the contemplation of the Author and Preserver of the Universe, to the promotion of charity, morality, piety, benevolence, virtue, and the strengthening the bonds of union between men of all religious persuasions and creeds: and also that a person of good repute, and well known for his knowledge, piety, and morality, be employed by the said trustees, as a resident superintendant, and for the purpose of superintending the worship, so to be performed as is hereinbefore stated and expressed; and that such worship be performed daily, or at least as often as once in seven days.

What a contrast does the foregoing description of a Hindoo place of worship present to the establishment of the temple

* The institution was opened by the late Rajah Rammohun Roy, accompanied by the writer (the only European present), in 1830. There were about 500 Hindoos present, and among them many Brahmins, who, after the prayers and singing of hymns had been concluded, received gifts in money to a considerable extent.

of the Idol of Jugunnauth, in Orissa, which the East India Company have now forbidden their government to meddle with, in any manner, as respects the collection of taxes* from the pilgrims thereto, although levied for the purpose of defraying the expenses incurred for the maintenance of peace and order; it was well, however, to withdraw from the levy of taxes on such idolatry.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE IDOL JUGUNNAUTH AT THE TEMPLE IN ORISSA.

1. *Maha Raja Ramchundra Devu.*—Honorary servant to the idol, to drive the flies from off the idol with a *chamur*, sweep the great car, and place flowers on the idol.

2. *Moodee Rut'h, alias Plenipotentiary.*—This officer is astronomer to the idol, and performs the other duties in the absence of the Maha Raja.

3. *Nayuk, or Head of the order of servants attending upon the idol.*—This officer adorns the idol, and performs other services, and superintends all the other officers.

4. *Punda.*—Performs the ceremonies during the presentation of the offerings.

5. *Pusoo-Paluk.*—Adorns the idol.

6. *Chowkiya.*—Keeps watch at the time of presenting the offerings.

7. *Puricha.*—This officer accompanies the idol to the tank, and purifies the temples.

8. *Neab Puricha.*—In the absence of the *Puricha*, these act in his stead.

9. *Muhar Shoohar, or Head Cook.*—Brahmun cooks, who carry the offerings into the presence of the idol.

10. *Shoowars.*—Brahmuns who assist the head cooks.

11. *Guraburoo.*—Persons who give water to the priests at the time of their performing the ceremonies of worship.

12. *Put'hree.*—Clear the sacred vessels, and carry the flowers, sandal-wood, &c. to the officiating priests.

13. *Tunt'hee.*—Brahmuns who place the boiled rice and split peas in silver and gold dishes, before the idol. This is called *sirkaree bhoge*, or that allowed by the government.

14. *Sawar.*—These persons distribute proper quantities of the offerings to different temples and officers, according to the appointed rules.

15. *Khootiya.*—Warns the idol at the time of the festivals.

16. *Meerkap.*—Master of the wardrobe, that is, of the jewel office; and *Changra Meerkap*, master of wearing apparel.

17. *Doita.*—Removes the idol from the throne, and puts him on the car, and replaces him again.

18. *Putee.*—Brahmuns who dress the idol. After the bathing festival, the idols are taken into a room, stripped of their old clothes, and swaddled with new ones. During the fifteen days of this festival, the offerings are presented by these people.

* The despatch is dated from the Court of Directors, 20th February, 1833.

19. *Majuna.*—These officers rub and clean the idols, and convey the smaller idols to tanks and other places, and afterwards place them in the room allotted for them.

20. *Hurup Nayuk.*—After the offerings are removed, these officers bring *pawn*, and hot spices, and place them before the idol, and which Jugunnauth munches at his ease.

21. *Aukund Meerkap.*—Lamp-lighter.

22. *Kat Meerkap.*—Lord of the bed-chamber.

23. *Puhuree.*—Watchmen at the time of presenting the offerings.

24. *Pooran Panda.*—Reads out of one of the *pooranuss* every afternoon near the idol.

25. *Mookhupukhal.*—A person who attends with a clumsy tooth-brush and water, to wash the face of the idol in the morning.

26. *Destana.*—Warns the idol of the time for the performance of the ceremonies.

27. *Porkanah.*—Watchmen of the wardrobe.

28. *Chatooa.*—A person who carries the umbrella.

29. *Tarasiya.*—A person who carries an ensign in the form of a half-moon.

30. *Deootiya.*—A torch bearer.

31. *Dunde Chutre.*—A person who stands by the throne with an umbrella, at the time of a feast occuring, on the 11th and 26th of the moon, and at other festivals.

32. *Kahaliya.*—One who blows the *kahal*, a sort of trumpet.

33. *Ghuntooa.*—A person who sounds the *ghuntr*, or brass bell.

34. *Ghutwaree.*—A person who prepares the sandal-powder.

35. *Linka.*—Peons.

36. *Prudham.*—Persons who give the golden rods of office to the *Purichas.*

37. *Dooaree.*—Doorkeepers (porters.)

38. *Sumnta.*—Grinder of pulse.

39. *Devu Dasse.*—Dancing and other young and beautiful girls, with a band of musicians.

Besides split peas, milk, curds, fruit, vegetables, &c. &c. it is said that not less than 124,800lb. of rice alone are offered to this god every year. The servants of the idol are paid out of grants of temple lands. On extraordinary occasions, (but not of late years) not less than *two million* of people have assembled at this temple; and if the weather were very wet and inclement, nearly half of them perished!

The largest of the cars of *Jugunnauth* and his sisters is 43 feet high, and has a platform of 34 feet square: their loftiness and size gives them an imposing air, but every part of the ornaments is of the most mean and paltry description. The enthusiasm of the people is decaying, and soon dies; and it is indispensable to avail of the assistance of a multitude of the inhabitants of the vicinity, who hold their land rent free, on condition of performing the service of dragging the three cars at the annual ceremonies. No person of late has thrown himself beneath the wheels of the idols' car, the East India Company's authorities have taken care to prevent such fanaticism, and indeed it is to be hoped that in a few years more the ceremony will be very trifling.

When it is considered that the religion or idolatry of the Hindoos is the creed of upwards of 60 or 70,000,000 of British subjects, a very brief analysis of some of the Deities worshipped will, doubtless, be acceptable to the English reader. The most learned Brahmins, while asserting and advocating the ancientness and correctness of the form of worship established by the late Rammohun Roy, maintain as an excuse for the present idolatries, that *it is easier to impress the minds of the rude and ignorant by intelligible symbols than by means which are incomprehensible.* Acting upon this principle (says Mr. Coleman in his erudite work on the Hindu Pantheon), the Supreme and Omnipotent God whom the Hindoo has been taught to consider as too mighty for him to attempt to approach or even to name, has been *lost sight of in the multiplicity of false deities whose graven images have been worshipped in his place.* The Hindoo *Veda* (Bible) inculcates the belief in and worship of *one great and only God,* omnipotent, omnipresent and omniscient, whose attributes are allegorically (and only *allegorically*) represented by the three *personified* powers of Creation, *(Brahma)* Preservation *(Vishnu)* and Destruction *(Siva)* who form the Hindoo *triad* without beginning and without end, destruction and reproduction being one—the same—indivisible. Comprehendible as these attributes are, it is but natural to suppose that the Hindoo sages having once entered on allegory in an endeavour to explain *im*materiality by materiality there were no bounds to invention but the fertility of thought and the credulity of their followers, thus on a simple and sublime monotheism there has been grafted a trinity—and thence a polytheism accompanied by the most disgusting of abominations, while the imaginary deities most honoured (as the goddess *Kali)* are of the most cruel, bloodthirsty and bestial character. Let us now glance at the mythological history of the principal Hindoo deities in which it is not a little remarkable we find such a close approximation to the Greek Pantheon, while the ox so venerated by the Egyptians is held in such sacredness by the Hindoos.

HISTORY AND ATTRIBUTES OF THE HINDOO DEITIES.*

BRAHM! The supreme Being created the world and formed the goddess Bhavani (Nature) who had three sons, *Brahma, Vishnu* and *Siva;* to the first was assigned the duty of continuing the creation of the world; to the second its preservation; and to the third its destruction: in other words these three presided over the three great operations of nature—production, preservation, and destruction.

BRAHMA (Saturn) the grandfather of gods and men, creating power dormant until again required to be exerted in the formation of a future world on the total annihilation of the present one which is expected in the *kalki avatar* (or tenth incarnation on earth of Vishnu): represented as a golden colored figure with four heads and four arms; power being dormant seldom worshipped, his heaven excels all others in magnificence, containing the united glories of all the heavens of the other deities. His earthly incarnations are (1) *Daksha*—(2) *Viswakarma* (Vulcan) architect of the universe, fabricator of arms to the gods, presides over the arts and manufactures, and represented as a white man with three eyes. Many temples dedicated to this god—one at Ellora hewn 130 feet in depth out of the solid rock, presenting the appearance of a magnificent vaulted chapel, supported by vast ranges of octangular columns, and adorned by sculptures of beautiful and perfect workmanship. (3.) *Nareeda* (Mercury) messenger of the gods, inventor of the lute, and a wise legislator. (4) *Brigu,* who appears to have presided over population since he caused the wife of King Suguru, heretofore barren, to produce 60,000 sons at *one* birth! The Brahmadicas, Menus and Rishis, are sages descended *longo intervallo* from *Brahmà,* whose wife, (some say the daughter), *Suraswátty* (Minerva) is the goddess of learning, music, poetry, history and the sciences; her festival is highly honoured, and offerings made to her in expiation of the sin of lying or having given false evidence.

* The reader desirous of a more detailed account will find it in Coleman's elaborate Hindoo theology.

We now come to the second of the Hindoo Triad.

VISHNU—the preserver of the universe—represented of a black or blue colour, with four arms and a club to punish the wicked. He is a household god, extensively worshipped, and on his tenth (nine are passed) avatar, when the sins of mankind are no longer bearable, he will appear as an armed warrior on a white horse adorned with jewels, having wings, holding in the one hand a sword of destruction, and in the other a ring emblematical of the perpetually revolving cycles of time. His heaven is described in the *Mahabarat* as entirely of gold, 80,000 miles in circumference; all its edifices composed of jewels and precious stones,—the seat of the god is glorious as the meridian sun;—*Sri* or *Lakshmi*, the goddess of fortune, and favourite wife of Vishnu, shining with 10,000 beams of lightning, sits on his right hand; there is a constant singing of hymns and chaunting his praises: his various *avatars* or earthly incarnations were for the purpose of saving the world, restoring the lost *Vedas* or sacred writings, to destroy the giants, punish the wicked, &c. His first avatar was in the form of a fish, to save a pious King Satyavrata (by some supposed to mean Noah) and his family, when the earth was about to be overwhelmed by a deluge on account of the wickedness of the people. Vishnu at first appeared before the devout monarch as a little fish to try his piety and benevolence, then gradually expanding himself he became one of immense magnitude; and thus announced the flood which on account of the depravity of the world was about to overwhelm the earth with destruction—'in seven days from the present time the three worlds will be plunged in an ocean of death; but in the midst of the destroying waves a large vessel, sent by me for thy use, shall stand before thee. Then shalt thou take all medicinal herbs, all the variety of seeds, and accompanied by seven saints, encircled by pairs of all brute animals, thou shall enter the spacious ark, and continue in it secure from the flood on an immense ocean, without light except the radiance of thy holy companions. When the ship shall be agitated by an impetuous wind, thou shalt fasten it

with a large sea serpent to my horn, for I will be near thee, drawing the vessel with thee and thy attendants. I will remain on the ocean until a day of Brahma (a year) shall be completely ended.'

'As it was announced,' says Mr. Coleman, 'the deluge took place; and Satyavrata entered the ark and did as he was directed, in fastening it to the horn of the fish; which again appeared, blazing like gold, and extending a million of leagues. When the deluge was abated, and mankind destroyed (except Satyavrata and his companions), Vishnu slew the demon Hayagriva, and recovered the lost Veda: or, in other words, when the wicked were destroyed by the deluge, sin no longer prevailed, and virtue was restored to the world.'

From one to eight the Avatars of Vishnu are of various descriptions (that of the second or tortoise producing the *water of life*, affords an extraordinary coincidence with the singular story of the Iroquois Indians) for the punishment of evil and the reward of good; the eighth Avatar was that of the celebrated god *Krishna*, whose attributes are similar to those of the Greek deity Apollo, and like the latter, extensively and enthusiastically worshipped, especially by the ladies; he is represented as extremely beautiful, of an azure colour, with a crown of glory on his head, and Orpheus-like ravishing the mountains and the trees, as well as all animated nature with the exquisite music of a flute. He had 16,000 mistresses, and was nearly as great a conqueror in the battle field as in the camp of love, but he subsequently became penitent, was satisfied with eight wives (astronomically considered to represent the planets moving round the *sun*, which Krishna is sometimes thought to represent), his festivals are well kept, and much rejoicement and pleasures of various kinds are then indulged in. His son by Rukmini (Venus), the most beautiful and favoured wife, was Kamadeva, or Camdeo (Cupid) with bee strung bow and flower tipped shaft, riding on a (Lory) parrot with emerald wings, sometimes accompanied by his consort *Affection*, full of mischief and

always wandering about; as Sir W. Jones has beautifully apostrophized Camdeo—

'Where'er thy seat—whate'er thy name,
Seas, earth, and air thy reign proclaim;
Wreathy smiles and roseate pleasures,
Are thy richest, sweetest treasures;
All animals to thee their tribute bring,
And hail thee universal king!'

The other Avatars of Hanuman (the monkey) Wittoba, (the gigantic crane), &c., it would be unnecessary to particularize, we may therefore proceed to examine the third branch of the Hindoo trinity.

Siva, *the destroyer*, is one of the most dreaded of the Triad; his emblems are conjectured by Mr. Patterson to be pregnant with allegorical allusions; he has three eyes to denote the three divisions of time—past, present, and future—'the crescent in his forehead refers to the measure of time by the phases of the moon, as the serpent denotes it by years: and the necklace of skulls, the lapse and revolution of ages, and the extinction and succession of the generations of mankind. He holds the trident in one hand, to shew that the three great attributes of creating, preserving, and destroying, are in him united, and that he is the Iswara, or supreme Lord, above Brahma and Vishnu; and that the emblem called *damara*, shaped like an hour-glass, with which he is sometimes seen, was actually intended to be such, to pourtray the progress of time by the current of the sand in the glass. On the celebrated colossal sculpture of the *Trimurti*, or three-formed god (Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva), in the caves of Elephanta, he has marked on his cap a human skull and a new-born-infant, to shew his two-fold power of destruction and reproduction; and on another figure in the same cave, he is represented in the attributes of his vindictive character, with eight arms, two of which are partly broken off. In one of the remaining six he brandishes a sword, and in another holds a human figure: in the third he has a basin of blood, and in the fourth

a sacrificial bell, which he appears to be ringing over it. With the other two he is in the act of drawing a veil, which obscures the sun, and involves all nature in universal destruction.*

His consort *Kali* is represented like her husband, with a necklace of skulls, and a sword of destruction, but painted of a dark colour (Siva is white) to indicate the eternal night that will follow the dissolution of *Time*. On the grand consummation of things, when time itself shall be destroyed, *Siva* is represented as deprived of his necklace of skulls, sword, crescent and trident, to demonstrate his dominion and power no longer exists. The bull is his favourite animal, hence its reverence among the Hindoos. The worshippers of Siva, who are beyond all comparison the most numerous (in Bengal) perform the most revolting, barbarous, and obscene rites: some lie on beds of iron spikes, others thrust rods of steel through the tongue and other parts of the body, many have a hook passed through the muscles of the loins, by which they hang and swing from a scaffolding 30 feet high; the bodies are covered with nails or packing needles, the leg is kept bent, or the arm extended, until it becomes immoveable; the fists are clenched until the nails grow out of the back of the hand, and the most painful tortures, self-inflicted by a host of filthy, naked *Sunyassis*, who in private make amends for the pain and filth they undergo in public by a revolting system of debauchery. *Siva* has several incarnations, one termed Bhairava, or *Byru* (or by some said to be his son by the cruel goddess Kali) is a terrific deity, only to be satisfied by blood. *Kali* (black goddess) so horribly worshipped by the Hindoos with human sacrifices, whenever they could evade the watchfulness of the British government, is adored under various forms and names of *Bhavani*, goddess of Nature and fecundity—as the potent *White* Parvati, and as the tremendous *Yellow Durga*, who delights in sacrifices of the blood of sheep and goats, and during whose festival every species of licentiousness prevails; the latter is repre-

* Coleman's Hindoo Mythology.

sented as having 100 arms, and that by means of 100,000,000 chariots, 120,000,000,000 elephants, 10,000,000 swift footed horses, and a proportionate number of infantry, she conquered 30,000 giants, who were such monsters in size, that they covered the earth.

The foregoing brief analysis of the Hindoo trinity and their consorts will suffice, for the reader would doubtless not desire a further description of the 300,000,000 deities who branch off from the preceding Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva; sufficient has been said to demonstrate the basis of the Hindoo mythology, the sects embraced under whose faith are extremely numerous, all tending to prove that when man attempts to materialize spirit, there is no end to the absurdities and inconsistencies into which he may be led.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE HINDOOS.—Connected with their religion, and indeed in a great measure embraced with its mythology, is the Hindoo system of chronology, which comprises a *calpa*, or grand period of 4,320,000,000 years divided into four lesser *yugs* (period of ages) thus:

1st. Satya-yug—years	1,728,000.	3rd. Dwapa-yug—years	864,000.
2nd. Treta-yug	1,296,000.	4th. Kali-yug	432,000.

making one Divine age or *Maha* (great) *yug*, of which there are to be 71 Maha yugs, equivalent to 306,720,000 of our years; but this is not all, for there is to be added a *sandhi* (when day and night border on each other) =a *satya-yug* 1,728,000 years; one *manwantara* = 368,448,000 years; fourteen of which = 4,318,272,000; and adding a *sandhi* (1,728,000 yrs.) to begin the *calpa*, or grand period, forming a duration for the world extending over 4,320,000,000 of our present years; those who fear the coming comet of 1835 will be glad to learn that only one half of this period has passed, the date being now *anno mundi* 2,160,000,000! Mr. S. Davis, in his essay on the subject in the Asiatic Researches, demonstrates that these are not fanciful fictions, but founded on actual astronomical calculations, based on an hypothesis. The Hindoos date from the commencement of the present *kali-yug*, which begun, according to our era, in the 906th

year. The corresponding dates are therefore—Hindoo 4,933; A. M. 5,839; A. D. 1832.*

MAHOMEDANISM. The disciples of Islam embrace about 15,000,000 of the population of British India, and they are divided into several sects; one in particular, the *Mundaris*, founded by Mondana Soofi—admit the divine mission of Mahomet, but disclaim his title to particular veneration; like the Sunyassis they go nearly naked, braid the hair, smear the body with ashes and filth, and wear heavy iron chains round their waists and neck.

That the Mahomedan religion did not make any greater progress than we find it has done after several centuries of gnvernment in India, although its practical essence is sensuality† and well adapted to people of a tropical clime, must be ascribed to the persecutions with which its propagators endeavoured to extend it, thus presenting a strong contrast to Christianity, which, wherever it was reviled and spit upon, was sure to be extended; and when (as among Roman Catholic enthusiasts) endeavoured to be propagated by idolatries and force, certain to bring down ruin on its propagators. There are many other religious sects among the British population of India—some such as the Bazeeghurs or Nuts (the Gipsies of Hindostan) are half Hindoos and half Mussulmans, admitting the rite of circumcision, yet employing a Brahminical priest; the Bazeeghurs conceive that one spirit pervades all nature, and that the soul being a particle of that universal spirit, will, when released from the body, rejoin its parent source. The *Dhamians*, or Vashtenaiva sect, was founded about one hundred years ago, and is a compound of

* The Hindoos have various other eras, which are too numerous and unimportant to be dwelt on.

† There are, however, may excellent precepts in the Koran. Take, for instance, the following observations frequently inscribed over the gate of a mosque—'The world was given us for our own edification, not for the purpose of raising sumptuous buildings; life for the discharge of moral and religious duties, not for pleasurable indulgencies; wealth to be liberally bestowed, not avariciously hoarded; and learning to produce good actions, not empty disputes.'

Hindoo and Islam-ism; proselytes are admitted from both, and the sect is probably extending; their form of worship is by chaunting a few melodious hymns and reading from a sacred book. The Sirmooris, like other hill tribes, are immersed in the deepest superstition, every mountain peak being the residence of a sprite whose wrath is deemed dangerous to provoke. 'Polyandry, or the custom of one woman having two or more husbands (relations), obtains among them. It frequently happens that two brothers succeed conjointly to an estate: they cohabit with one wife, and the integrity of the property is thus preserved.'* This strange custom indicates the state of society; the women of another mountain tribe, the Newars, like the Nairs of Malabar, may have as many husbands as they please, being at liberty to divorce them on the slightest pretences. The Binderwars, one of the Goand of Gond tribes inhabiting the hills of Oomacutu are sunk in the deepest paganism; they are cannibals, but declare a strong abhorrence of eating any person but one of their own tribe, and then only when he or she is attacked by what they may deem an irrecoverable illness; on which occasion they collect all the relatives of the sick person, cut the throat of the deceased, and then feast amidst much rejoicing on the body: this bloody right is considered a meritorious act by this otherwise innocent people. Other idolatrous tribes, such as the Bheels, Koolies, Ramoosees, &c. have one peculiarity which it would be well if Christians would rival them in,—*their word is sacred—their promise unimpeachable.*

Before proceeding to notice the Christian sects, it will be well to say a few words on that singular and exemplary race termed—

PARSEES, OR FIRE WORSHIPPERS, who form one of the most valuable classes of the subjects of the British Crown. This sect preferring liberty to slavery, and the exercise of their pure religion to the degrading heresy of Mahomet, emigrated from Persia in the XVIIth Century, soon after the conquest of the Persians by the Mahomedans, carrying with

* Asiatic Researches.

them that sacred fire (emblematical of the Sun and thence of the Almighty) which they religiously venerate. A number of these persecuted Guebers found their way to western India along the coast near Danoo and Cape Sejan, and were admitted by the Hindoo Rajah to settle in the neighbouring country, principally at Oodwara, (still the residence of their chief priests, and the depository of the sacred fire brought with them). They may be termed the Quakers of the East. The opulent among them are merchants, brokers, ship-owners, and extensive land-owners. The lower orders are shop-keepers, and follow most of the mechanic arts, except those connected with fire: thus there are neither silversmiths, nor any workers of the metals among them; nor are there any soldiers, the use of fire-arms being abhorrent to their principles; nor are there any sailors. Their charities are munificent and unbounded, relieving the poor and distressed of all tribes, and maintaining their own poor in so liberal a manner that a Parsee beggar is no where seen or heard of.

The Parsee population is divided into clergy and laity (Mobed and Bedeen). The clergy and their descendants are very numerous, and are distinguished from the laity by the wearing of white turbans; but they follow all kinds of occupations, except those who are particularly selected for the service of the churches, though they have no distinction of castes. A recent innovation, respecting the commencement of their new year, has formed them into two tribes, one celebrating the festival of the new year a month before the other, which causes their religious ceremonies and holidays to fall also on different days.

The modern, like the ancient, *Parsis* or Parsees, have no statues of the Deity, no temples, no altars, they treat such as folly; they reverence the whole vault of heaven, the sun, the moon, planets, stars, earth, fire, water, and the winds, but do not sacrifice to them as Herodotus describes the ancient Parsis to have done. The *Zend-Avesta*, or sacred writings, (ascribed by some to Zoroaster) is principally a series of

liturgic services and prayers. *Light* is regarded as the best and noblest symbol of the *Supreme Being*, who is without form. They delight to worship the rising sun, the rays of which are never allowed to fall direct on the sacred fire within the temples, or rather repositories of the fire. The Parsees suppose a continued warfare between good and evil spirits,* which fill all nature, and besides a heaven and a hell, (which latter is not eternal) they have a middle state *(Hanustan)* where the souls of those whose good and evil actions are equally balanced remain till the day of judgment. They have no fasts as God delights in the happiness of his creatures; all birds and beasts of prey, with the dog and the hare, are alone forbidden food. Polygamy is not allowed, unless the first wife be barren; concubinage strictly forbidden,—priests marry—and marriage being laudable every season is good: unlike the Hindoos they admit converts, and the planting of trees is esteemed among their good works.

Most of the ancient ceremonies have been preserved inviolate; and particularly those concerning the rights of sepulture. No person of a different sect is allowed to approach, or any stranger allowed to witness, the obsequies; the bodies are exposed to the elements and birds, on the terraces of towers or sepulchres.

They have a few plain and unornamented churches, where they assemble for the purpose of prayer; they are crowded every day by the clergy, but the laity only attend on certain days.

Jews, black and white, exist in various parts of India, in particular a very ancient colony of black Jews reside in Cochin, who it is traditionally said arrived in India soon after the Babylonian Captivity. Mr. Fisher, the learned and indefatigable searcher of the records at the India House, in adverting to this circumstance says, that 'this tradition derives countenance from the circumstance of their possessing copies of only those books of the Old Testament, which were written previously to the captivity, but none of those whose

* The dog and cock are respected for their guardian watchfulness.

dates are subsequent to that event. The library of the late Tippo Sultaun contained some translations from these ancient Jewish Scriptures; and there are copies of them in the possession of Jews in Malabar, which are remarkable for this peculiarity. Some of the Jewish manuscripts which are in the hands of native Jews, are described as exhibiting an appearance of high antiquity, and as written on rolls of a substance resembling paper, and in a character which has a strong resemblance to, but not an exact agreement with, the modern Hebrew.'

The eastern Jews like their western brethren are astute traders; they have several Synagogues and are remarkable for a zeal to diffuse the tenets of the faith in which they believe; they are said to be very numerous in China, but afraid of being confounded with the Christians who are zealously watched in the Celestial Empire.

CHRISTIANS. The most ancient of the Sects who believe in the divine incarnation (or as the Hindoos would term it *Avatar*) of Christ are the Syrian Christians, disciples of St. Thomas the Apostle, who it is said after establishing Christianity in Arabia Felix, and in the Island of Socotra, landed at Cranganore, on the Malabar Coast, A. D. 51, where he found a colony of Jews living under the protection of a powerful Hindoo Sovereign. St. Thomas it is said rapidly spread Christianity along the coast and throughout Southern India, but one of the kings having become a convert to the Faith, St. Thomas was subjected to much persecution, and ultimately stoned to death on a Mount, which still bears the name of the Martyr. The following interesting account of this primitive church has been handed me by Mr. Fisher, late of the India House, and it is hoped the statements thus given will lead to further investigation into so exciting a subject.

St. Thomas's mount, as well as the ancient city or town, to which also the Christian inhabitants have given the name of *St. Thomé*, are now, and have been for several centuries, places of pilgrimages and annual resort of *Christians*, who come from all parts of India, the interior of Armenia and Syria, crowding to the town, and covering the mount, in order that they may kiss the spot where the Apostle suf-

fered martyrdom; there also depositing their offerings, and praying over the place of his sepulture, which they are represented as holding in such high veneration, that they carry away with them small portions of the red earth, and, conceiving it to possess miraculous properties, administer it with great solemnity to the sick and dying.

The Syrian Christians suffered persecution from heathen rulers during the *three* first centuries. Early in the fourth century, they obtained aid from Athanasius, Bishop of Alexandria, who is represented as having come to their succour, and appointed a Bishop to rule over and protect them.

In the year 345, *Mar Thomas* assumed charge of them, under the authority of Eustathius, Bishop of Antioch, and introduced amongst them several Bishops and Priests, as also 'many Christen men, women, and children from foreign countries.' This man, *Thomas Cana*, or *Mar Thomas*, was an Armenian merchant, in creed an Arian, who first came to India with commercial views only; but being a virtuous and upright man, and having amassed great wealth, he obtained the friendship of the Kings of Cranganore and Cochin, at the same time enjoying the veneration and respect of the Christians of St. Thomas; for whom he is stated to have built many churches, to have established seminaries for the education of their clergy, and to have founded a town called *Maha Devapatam*, in the neighbourhood of the city of Cranganore, wherein he planted the foreign colony of Christians he had imported.

He also, assisted by Syrian teachers, introduced the Syro-Chaldeac ritual, and successfully exerted his influence with the native princes to obtain for the Christians on the Malabar coast exclusive privileges; such as independence of the native judges, except in criminal cases, and a rank in the country equal to nobility, by which they were placed on a level with the superior castes. These privileges were ostensibly granted to the Christians, in consideration of their virtues, and they were enjoyed uninterruptedly through several succeeding centuries, having been confirmed by formal grants in different and now unknown languages, engraved on tablets composed of a mixed metal. The inscription on the plate supposed to contain the oldest grant, is in the nail-headed or Persepolitan character. Another is a character which has no affinity with any existing language in Hindostan. These tablets were lost during several centuries, and were recovered a few years since by the exertions of Colonel Macauley, the British resident in Travancore, to the great joy of the Syrian churches; by whom they were deposited, and are still preserved in the Syrian college, which has been erected at Cattayam.

In settling the ecclesiastical constitution of the Syrian churches, it was determined that the right to rule over them should vest in those families only out of which the Apostle had himself ordained priests. The offices of Bishop, Archdeacon, and Priest, were accordingly for many years confined to these families, and persons were chosen from them who were recognized as the natural judges in all civil and ecclesiastical causes, and as having authority over all temporal as well as ecclesiastical affairs.

In the ninth century the Syrian Christians were much depressed, and sought the aid of the Nestorian patriarch, who commissioned two ecclesiastics of that church, *Mar Saul* and *Mar Ambrose*, to proceed to Malabar, and rule over them. These

prelates on their arrival at Quilon, were received by the Christians with great thankfulness. By their presence they soon commanded the respect of the native princes, who allowed them to make converts, and to erect churches wherever they pleased; for which also they obtained endowments from the noble and wealthy part of the community. From the Hindoo princes they moreover obtained the formal renewal of ancient privileges by grants, which were engraven, as those of higher antiquity had been, on plates of metal. These grants are still preserved, and are in the languages of Malabar, of Canara, of Bisnagur, and in Tamul.

The Syrian or Nestorian Bishops, *Mar Saul* and *Mar Ambrose*, are still held in high veneration by the Syrian Christians, who mention them in their prayers, and dedicate churches to their memory.

Between the ninth and fourteenth centuries these Christians are described as having attained to their highest state of external respectability; if not of purity. They were enlightened by the instruction of a succession of able teachers from Syria, who spread the blessings of the Gospel with zeal, integrity, and honour; receiving such only to their communion as could approach with unblemished character; and rejecting all and every one who could not appear with hands undefiled, and with minds throughly convinced of the abomination of heathen worship. All false miracles were then rejected, and the Christians were distinguished by intelligence and decency of manners, which recommended them to the native princes, by whom their teachers were invested with the first offices under the Government. At length they entirely shook off the yoke of the Hindoo princes, and elected a Chief or King of their own religion, raising one *Baliarte* to the throne, who assumed the title of 'King of the Christians of St. Thomas:' but this state of independence did not long continue. The regal power, through default of succession, passed to the Rajah of Cochin, and that chief, while he professedly respected their rights, persecuted them through hatred of their religion.

In this state the Portuguese found them; *encompassed on all sides by enemies, and bowed under the yoke of the Hindoo princes.* The account which the Portuguese gave of them was, that they 'were in a state of decadence, and amounted to about 200,000 Christians, the wreck of an unfortunate people, who called themselves Christians of St. Thomas, and after the example of their ancestors, performed pilgrimages every year to the place where the apostle consummated his martyrdom; whose history and miracles, extracted from their annals, had been composed into a species of canticles translated into the language of the country, and sung by the inhabitants of the fishery (the Manaar pearl fishery), and of the coast of Malabar.'

Their subsequent history is a good deal interwoven with that of the Roman Catholics in India: it may suffice to observe, that when the Syrian Christians placed themselves under the direction of the Portuguese missionaries, and, as the latter assert, 'voluntarily requested that they might be adopted as good and faithful subjects of the King of Portugal,' they amounted to 1,500 Christian churches under the Syrian patriarch, retaining their martial character, and associating with the higher castes of Hindoos, who deemed themselves honoured by the association. On the part of the Syrian Churches, it is stated that they proposed their union with the western church, 'having full confidence in its piety and truth, and no knowledge of its corruptions'—that in particular the Sacraments of confirmation,

of extreme unction, of auricular confession, and the worship of images were unknown to them—that the title of '*Mother of God*' was, when they heard it, disgusting to them, and that when her image was first presented to them, they rejected it with indignation, exclaiming, '*We are Christians, and not Idolaters.*' To induce the Syrians to conform to the idolatry of the Roman Catholic Church, the missionaries resorted first to artifice and then to force. They founded colleges and schools for youth, whom they proposed to instruct in the rites of the Latin Church, still employed the Syrian language, and it is believed that their schools did some service; but these measures not effecting their main object, which appears to have been the establishment of the Pope's supremacy, together with the erroneous tenets and particularly the idolatry of his religion,* the missionaries resorted to the *inquisition* about the middle of the sixteenth century. Division, contention, and confusion were the natural consequences of this step: in which state the churches continued till the year 1599, when a fresh attempt was made to effect a compromise between the Latin and Syrian Christians, at a conference called the Synod of *Udiamper*, a town in the neighbourhood of Cochin. Here the parties met; but the Roman Catholic missionaries, the Jesuits, had bribed the civil power, which was in the hands of the Cochin Rajah, so effectually as to destroy the freedom of discussion, and eventually to obtain the means of subjecting the Syrian bishops to persecution, for their faithful adherence to the truth. Two of these confessors Mar Symeon, and Mar Ignatius, were embarked on board of Portuguese vessels for Lisbon, where they were treated as heretics, and never more heard of in India. In this state of depression and suffering under Popish intolerance, the Syrian Christians continued more than 60 years, until the capture of Quilon by the Dutch in 1661. By that event the power of the Portuguese was destroyed, and the Christians of St. Thomas restored to liberty. In 1665, the Jesuits quitted India. From their expulsion to the year 1815, the Syrian Churches continued a separate branch of the Indian community; although divided into sects, and impaired in energy and purity of doctrine, by their unhappy connection with the Roman missionaries.

In 1815, on the demise of their patriarch, they obtained the aid of the Company's Government, exerted through Col. Macaulay, the Company's resident in Travancore, who having recovered for them their ancient grants and evidences of nobility, assisted them to found a College at Cattayam for the education of a clergy, and for the Syrian youth generally. Colonel Macaulay effected several other arrangements for the general improvement of their condition. A considerable grant of land was obtained for the college, together with a donation of 20,000 rupees from the Rannee of Travancore, and three English missionaries were attached to the college at the instance of the resident.

The Syrian Christians now exist under three denominations.

First. The *Syrian* Churches, of which there are 57 in Quilon and the neighbour-

* They professed to have found the remains of St. Thomas the Apostle and Martyr; and a skull and bones, called his, were kept and worshipped in a church at Goa, dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, *Mother of God.* One friar Emanuel is reported to have dug up these remains at the command of Don John, King of Portugal.

ing districts, comprehend a Christian population of 70,000 persons, who are governed by a Metropolitan, and retain a comparatively pure doctrine, although its professors are in general in low condition.

Second. The *Syro-Roman* Churches, who had adopted the Roman ritual with its corruptions, but still perform their worship in the Syrian language. These are in number 97 churches, with a population of about 96,000; viz. 52 churches, with a population of about 49,000, under the Archbishop of Cranganore; 38 churches, with a population of 40,000, under the Vicar Apostolique of Verapoli; and 7 churches, with a population of about 7,000, under the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon.

Third. The Latin churches, which have fully conformed to the Church of Rome, and use a ritual in the Latin language. These are in number 40 churches, with a population of about 54,000; viz. 21 churches, with a population of about 29,000, under the Vicar Apostolique of Verapoli; and 19 churches, with a population of about 35,000, under the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon. In addition to these churches, and dependent on them, there are numerous chapels of ease scattered over the country, in many instances four to each principal church.

The Syrian Churches keep quite distinct from the Latin Churches, and do not intermix with them.

Such of these churches, and they are numerous, as are within the Company's territory, have enjoyed not only that general protection for persons and property, which is common to all classes of natives; but many grants or loans of money, and grants of land for the erection of Churches and for cemeteries, have been made to them. A volume might be filled with the details of these grants. The claims of the Christians for protection against Mahomedans and Hindoos, are also not unfrequent. The following is a somewhat remarkable instance. In one of the villages within the territories of the Ex-Paishwa, lately transferred to the Bombay Presidency, there appears to have been a body of these native Christians, who, immediately on the establishment of the British power in the district, applied to the magistrate to relieve them from the disagreeable obligation of drawing the Hindoo idol's car on his festival day. The Hindoos put in a formal answer to the claim of exemption, pleading that the practice had continued for more than 80 years, which amounted to custom beyond the memory of man to the contrary. The cause was duly, and it may be presumed ably, argued by native Vakeels, before the British magistrate; who decided that no custom, of however long continuance, could justify a practice so monstrous, as that of compelling Christians to draw the car of an Idol. The decision was final—whether it gave universal satisfaction, the record does not state.

Mr. Fisher next proceeds to describe the

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONARIES.—The establishment of these missionaries at Goa early in the sixteenth century, has already been adverted to, and their most oppressive conduct towards the Syrian Christians. The learning and science of Europe, which they carried to India with them, contributed, it may be presumed, as much as the military power of the Portuguese, to give them an influence and ascendancy among the native princes, which they might have enjoyed as long and as

beneficially as the East India Company have enjoyed theirs, had they used it as temperately, as wisely, and as justly. How they did use it is now matter of history, and if any of your readers are not sufficiently informed upon the subject, they may be referred to the history of the Inquisition of Goa; or to the several other Portuguese accounts of their mission.

The E. I. Company's dominion, as it spread in India, extended of course over countries and places which contained churches, religious houses, and other establishments of Roman Catholics; for the most part of Portuguese origin. These Roman Catholics have received, and still receive, the same protection for their persons and property, religious as well as civil, as has been extended to every other class of inhabitants. The Padrees, for they were known by that name in the seventeenth century, have been allowed the free exercise of their religion to the extent of building and consecrating churches, and performing worship therein, according to their own views. They have also been allowed peaceably to carry the Host in procession, but have not been permitted to compel either Papists, Protestants, Mahomedans, or Hindoos to kneel before it. Endeavours to exert force have occasionally brought them in contact with the Company's government, and at one time the refractory conduct of the congregation *de propaganda fide*, caused them to be excluded from Madras, and the Capuchins to be preferred and allowed, *as the only body of Roman Catholics, which the government could at that time with safety to the peace of the settlement, permit to reside in it.* But this and any other similar restraints, which may have been imposed, have been temporary; and withdrawn when the occasions have ceased. There is not, that I am aware of, any regulation of the Company's government, which would prevent one of the Bishops of the Church of Rome, now resident in India, from receiving and wearing a cardinal's hat, were it the pleasure of his holiness the Pope to send him one. The law of *præmunire*, the famous contrivance of Henry the Eighth, by which he deprived his minister Wolsey of all his goods, and John Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, of his head, is unknown in India, except as a piece of English history. The Roman Catholic Bishops of India do in fact correspond with the several states of Europe, such as Italy, France, and Portugal, to which they acknowledge ecclesiastical allegiance, and have often obtained assistance from the Company in conducting their correspondence with those states, and in remitting and receiving funds: still further, they enjoy at the present time large pecuniary support, which has from time to time been freely granted to them, in every instance where a case of necessity and of useful application has been clearly made out. In such cases, the Company have either granted plots of ground, or sums of money, to erect churches; or the loan of such funds, or stipends for the officiating priests, of whom there are at the present time a very considerable number in the monthly receipt of such stipends.

As much discussion now exists in England and in Ireland relative to the propriety of the state leaving the Roman Catholic priesthood dependent on almost elymosynary contributions, and as charges have been made against the E. I. Company of refusing support or toleration to the Roman Ca-

tholic faith, I entreat the reader's attention to the following documents just received (June, 1835) from the India House, and not before printed. Were the E. I. Company to give publicity to all their regulations, the toleration and beneficence of their rule would be far less subject to misrepresentations.

BOMBAY ROMAN CATHOLICS.—Memorandum by Mr. Acting-Secretary Reid, dated May, 1832:—

The statement required is herewith forwarded, with the exception of the four items marked A., the other grants have all been made at civil or military stations.

18*th March*, 1820. A donation was granted towards the erection of a Roman Catholic chapel at Kaira, to the amount of Rs. 200.

24*th June*, 1822. A donation was granted under this date towards the erection of a Roman Catholic chapel at Baroda, to the amount of Rs. 200.

30*th May*, 1822. An estimate was passed under this date for enclosing part of the burying ground or backbay for the use of the Roman Catholic soldiers, amounting to Rs. 4,10,230.

15*th March*, 1822. A piece of waste land was granted under this date to the Roman Catholics at Broach for the purpose of a burial ground.

18*th October*, 1822. A donation was granted under this date towards the erection of a chapel at Rutnagherry, to the amount of Rs. 200.

25*th November*, 1822. A further donation was granted under this date towards the completion of the Roman Catholic chapel at Kaira, to the amount of Rs. 800.

16*th May*, 1826. An estimate was passed under this date for building a chapel at Colaba on account of the Roman Catholic soldiers stationed there, amounting to Rs. 17,421.

7*th November*, 1826. An estimate was passed under this date for walling in the burying ground allowed for the Roman Catholic soldiers at Matronga, amounting to Rs. 1,033,2,90.

28*th July*, 1826. A donation was granted under this date on account of the Roman Catholic chapel erected at Mhow, amounting to Rs. 200.

2*d September*, 1828. The sum of rupees 3,000 was awarded under this date towards the erection of a Catholic place of worship for the Catholic soldiers at Poona.

30*th June*, 1828. A donation was sanctioned under this date towards the erection of a Roman Catholic chapel at Belgaum, of Rs. 300.

18*th April*, 1829, A. A donation was sanctioned under this date towards rebuilding the church of N. S. de Rozario of Tarapoor, to the amount of Rs. 100.

20*th June*, 1829. A monthly allowance was sanctioned under this date as a grant to the church of St. John the Baptist of Tannah, to the amount of Rs. 30.

1*st June*, 1829. A further sum was sanctioned under this date towards the erection of the chapel in the cantonment of Poona, to the amount of Rs. 636,2,16.

5*th March*, 1830. Under this date Government sanctioned the construction of a Roman Catholic chapel at Deera, at an expense not exceeding Rs. 3,000.

29*th September*, 1830, A. A donation was granted under this date towards the

repair of the Roman Catholic church of Condity in Salsette, to the amount of Rs. 100.

16*th July*, 1831, A. A donation of rupees 150 was sanctioned under this date towards the repair of the church of N. S. de Remedeos of Poinser in Salsette, provided the ryots and lessors of the village would come forward with the remaining sum required for that purpose.

1832, A. A monthly allowance of rupees 10 was sanctioned for the Portuguese church at Caranja.

Extract from Public Letter of the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company to Bombay, dated 23rd January, 1828:—

33. We shall not withhold our sanction from the addition of 10 rupees which you have made to the monthly salary of 30 rupees to the Priest at Kaira, as the object of the addition is to defray the expence of his journeys to Ahmedabad and Rutherpore, at which latter place there is a cantonment of dragoons.

34. Nor do we object to the grant of 40 rupees per mensem to the Bishop of Antipholi, to enable him to secure the services of Priests for the spiritual instruction of the Roman Catholic soldiers stationed at Bombay.

36. With respect to the proceedings reported in your letter of the 1st November 1819, and the arrangements recommended to our adoption in that of the 12th of August, 1820, we regret that you should have been kept for so long a time in ignorance of our sentiments. This delay was occasioned principally by the want of sufficiently detailed information as to the number of the Roman Catholic clergy within the limits of your Presidency, and the nature and extent of the funds by which they are supported. Although this defect has not been supplied by your subsequent despatches we are nevertheless unwilling to postpone any longer the communication of our opinions respecting the policy which should be pursued towards the Roman Catholics of Bombay and its dependencies. As, at the date of the cession of Bombay by the Crown of Portugal, the Roman Catholic was the established religion of the Island, and as, in virtue of a stipulation of the grant by which it was transferred to the East India Company, the Roman Catholic population were secured in the full enjoyment of their privileges, as well as in the free exercise of their religion, we feel that they are entitled to such protection.

37. From Mr. Henderson's report, recorded on your consultations of the 4th June, 1814, it would appear that the Romish clergy on the Island of Bombay derive no part of their support from your Government, with the exception of the pension of 400 rupees per annum, which was granted in the year 1814 to the Bishop of Antipholi, and which received our sanction.

38. With regard to the places acquired by cession or conquest from the Mahrattas, we observe that you agree to allow a pension of 30 rupees per mensem to the Priests at Surat Malwan, Broach and Kaira, but that you decline complying with a petition from the Vicars in Bassein, praying for the like indulgence.

39. We feel that it would be discreditable to a Christian Government to witness with utter indifference, the possible lapse of its native Roman Catholic subjects to heathenism for want of the means of supporting their pastors, and indisputably, they have at least as strong a claim upon our country as the Hindoo and Mahome-

dan priesthood. Entertaining these sentiments we shall not disallow the stipends which you have actually granted.

40. The arrangement recommended to our adoption in your letter of the 12th August, 1820, has primarily in view the effectual supercession of the Archbishop of Goa's spiritual jurisdiction, which, notwithstanding your endeavours to exclude it, has, it appears, been clandestinely exercised within the limits of your Presidency. If this subject had now been for the first time brought under our notice, it might be doubted whether the actual and prospective inconveniences of the Archbishop's were as formidable as has been supposed. But with reference to our former orders, and to the encouragement which has been afforded to the Carmelite Bishop and Priests, we consider ourselves in a measure pledged upon a subject which was then considered. It appears to us, that it would be next to impossible to extinguish the influence of the Archbishop over the Roman clergy, so long as they are obliged to resort to Goa for education and ordination. It is not to be expected that the sanction of a Protestant magistrate to resumption of spiritual functions by a Priest, who had received ordination at Goa, and been suspended from his benefice by the Archbishop, would be respected by his flock, even if the Priest himself should regard it as a valid warrant for administering the sacraments and receiving confessions which, we think is very doubtful.

41. In your letter of the 12th Aug. 1820, you state the expense of the proposed seminary for the education of persons to supply the Roman Catholic churches at about 300 rupees per mensem; but we observe that the Bishop of Antipholi (who is to nominate the pastors subject to your approval) has stated in his letter to Mr. Elphinstone of the 16th May, 1823, that 150 rupees per mensem would enable him to provide teachers for the instruction of individuals desirous of qualifying themselves for the sacred office.

42. If the Roman Catholic population of Bombay and its dependencies should willingly submit to the authority of the Carmelite Bishop and to the Priests of his ordination, there would still remain the difficulty (which you yourselves have noticed) of adjusting the conflicting claim of that prelate, and of the Archbishop of Goa, as to the limits of their respective jurisdictions. We apprehend that this could be done in no other mode than by a reference to the Court of Rome, and unless the Carmelite Bishop should have the means of obtaining the Pope's decision upon the point, we see no prospect of a termination of the dispute; under these circumstances, we do not feel prepared to accede to the propositions which you submitted to us in your letter of the 12th August, 1820. In the present state of our information, we certainly should not be disposed to authorise so large an annual expenditure as you have recommended, but neither would we wish to prohibit you from affording a small pecuniary assistance to the Roman Catholic clergy in cases where the refusal of such assistance might, by possibility, involve the dispersion and apostacy to heathenism of their congregations.

43. Towards the education of persons designed to fill vacant benefices, we are willing to contribute an annual sum not exceeding 1,800 rupees, which we conceive will be sufficient to provide qualified pastors for the congregations who acknowledge the spiritual authority of the Bishop of Antipholi. We, however, do not pledge ourselves to this as a permanent arrangement, as it is not impossible that some other mode may hereafter present itself of supplying pastors to the Roman Catholic churches.

44. We wish you to furnish us with a statement of the number of the Roman Catholic churches in the territories subject to your Presidency, the number of the Priests belonging to those churches, the sources whence they derive their support, and such other particulars as may serve to explain the actual condition of our Roman Catholic subjects.

[Let it be remarked that the foregoing was written before the Roman Catholics were emancipated from political disabilities in England, and then the sentiments it conveys will be more readily seen in reference to public opinion in England. —R.M.M.]

The following extract from a Public Letter from Bombay, dated 20th January, 1830, to the Court of Directors, will shew what has been done:—

Par. 27. Having called for information in regard to the Catholic churches, &c. within the limits of this Presidency, we beg to lay the result before your Honourable Court.

The Bishop of Bombay states that he has within the Island of Bombay under his jurisdiction five churches, including the new church at Colaba, built by the Hon. Company, and two chapels, that the number of Priests are thirteen, exclusive of his Vicar, General Fr. Luiz Maria, and Bishop Prendergast, who lives with him. That all these churches, except that at Colaba, have sufficient funds to keep them in good order, and to support their Priests, that those funds were left by pious benefactors; that at Surat he has two churches under his jurisdiction, and two Priests, one of whom, as chaplain to the Servants of the Hon. East India Company, receive 40 rupees per month, and the other nothing. That both the churches have sufficient funds to keep them in good order, and to support those Priests. That at Broach and Baroda he has two chapels without any fund whatever, the chaplains there receiving from the Hon. Company an allowance of 30 rupees each per month. That he has a chapel at Kaira without any fund, and that the chaplain receives from the Hon. Company an allowance of 40 rupees per month. That he has small chapels at Mhow, Dhoolia, Candeish, Malwan, and Rutnagherry, and the respective chaplains receive 30 rupees per month from the Hon. Company. That the chapels at Poona and Aurungabad ought to belong to him, but for the want of Priests he has consented to the Archbishop sending Priests there: the Bishop requests an allowance of rupees 15 per month on account of each of those small chapels, for keeping them in order, and an addition of rupees 10 per month to the allowance of the chaplains attached to them.

The senior magistrate of police states that there are twelve Roman Catholic churches on the Island of Bombay, but in regard to the number of Priests, &c. he refers Government to the Bishop of Antipholi, and the Archbishop's Vicar General in Bombay, as he has no means himself of furnishing information thereon.

The Collector of Ahmedabad reports that there are no Roman Catholic churches within his collectorate, and that the whole number of persons of that religion residing within his jurisdiction does not amount to above 40 souls.

The Collector of Broach reports that there is only one Roman Catholic church and one Priest in his Zillah: that the church was built by subscription, and the Priest receives a monthly allowance of rupees 30 for his support. That the annual repairs of the church, and other monthly contingent expenses thereof,

such as clerks, pay, &c. are borne by subscription lately made by some Roman Catholics residing there.

The Collector of Kaira reports that there are two Roman Catholic churches in his Zillah, to which but one Priest is attached: that both churches are in the vicinity of Kaira, one close to the head cutchery in the suburbs of the town of Kaira, for performing the duty of which the Priest is allowed rupees 40 per month from the Government: the other is situated in the camp, for performing the duty of which the Priest receives private voluntary contributions.

The Collector of Surat reports that there are two Roman Catholic churches at Surat—the first was erected in 1624, a Sunnud was granted in the year 1729, by the Emperor of Delhi, and the Nawaub of Surat paid monthly a sum of rupees 126 2 0 in support of it: this was continued until the date of its coming into the possession of the Hon. Company, when it ceased; it is now supported by the rent of three houses, yielding, when occupied, an aggregate monthly sum of Rs. 45. At present they have fallen much into decay, and two are without tenants, these belong to the church. The second church is supported by Government, the Priest receives a monthly sum of Rs. 40, besides the subscriptions obtained occasionally from private individuals, it is said to be in a flourishing condition. The number of Roman Catholics who attend these two churches does not exceed 120 persons. There are few Roman Catholics, and no churches in any other part of his Zillah.

The Collector in the Southern Conkan reports that there are six churches in his Zillah, viz:

No. of Churches.	No. of Priests.	Churches where situated.	Estimated Annual Expense.	The sources whence they derive their support.		Remarks.
1	1	Malwun	557 1 0	From Government	540 0 0	The marriage fee is 5 Rs., and small fees are also exacted at burials.
				From the Congregation	13 0 0	
					553 0 0	
1	—	Vingoorla ..	58 0 0	From the Congregation	58 0 0	The priest, who occasionally officiates, resides in Saurint Warer, and visits this church 4 or 5 times a year. The proceeds are derived from marriage fees, and a payment of 1 or 2 annas a head by each Catholic.
1	—	Viziadroog ..	0 0 0	No regular expense		The priest from Malwa visits the Church occasionally, the congregation is very limited, and the repairs of the church are made by the parishioners.
1	1	Rutnagherry	540 0 0	From Government	540 0 0	This church was built in 1822 by the Portuguese inhabitants, with the assistance of 200 Rs. from Government.
1	—	Hurnee	0 0 0	No regular expense		The priest of Rutnagherry occasionally visits this church. The congregation is very limited.
				From Government	237 1 62	
1	1	Korli.....	0 0 0	From Angria, the produce of some Enam land.....	12 0 0	The deficiency in the funds is made up by alms, which the priest procures at Bombay and other places, the church is of the time of the Portuguese Government at Reodunda.
				From the Congregation	25 0 0	
					274 1 62	

Mr. Reid states that the number of Roman Catholics is very inconsiderable, and consists principally of a floating population from Goa and Bombay. At Korli, opposite the Fort of Reodunda, and at Viziadroog and Hurnee, few old Portuguese residents are to be found. To Malwa, Vingoorla and Rutnagherry they have been attracted since the establishment of the British Government, and consist of English writers and their families, farmers of the Government, Liquor Farms, and a few stone cutters and mechanics; the total number does not exceed 1,000 souls.

The Collector of Ahmednuggur states that there are no churches nor any established Priest in any town in his collectorate. That the Roman Catholics of Ahmednuggur, about 50 persons, met in a place of worship on Sundays and other days, and have been contemplating building a church, inviting a clergyman, and requesting ground from Government for the site of a church and burial place, and the Collector expresses a hope that when such application is made, we will afford them suitable assistance.

The principal Collector of Dharwar reports that there are 11 churches in his collectorate, viz: one at each of the following places, Rhanapoor, Nundagurh, Shawpore, Belgaum, Kittoor, Beedee, Machgurh, Darwur, Azrah, (in the Kolapoor territory) Hallkurnee, and Bellgoondee. That there are three Priests to those churches, one senior and two junior, all natives of Goa. That the four first mentioned churches are under charge of the senior Priest, to whom the other two Priests are required to report proceedings; the next four under one of the junior Priests, and the remaining three under the other, the whole are subject to the Archbishop of Goa. They derive their principal support from the Portuguese Government, the senior Priest is allowed a salary of 300 Goa rupees per annum, and the two junior Priests 250 rupees each; they also receive fees for baptisms, marriages, funerals, &c. for little more than a year and a half the senior Priest, who officiates at Belgaum, received an allowance of 25 Rs. per month from the British Government, but this has been discontinued since the removal of the 1st Bombay European regiment. The members of the four churches under the immediate superintendence of the senior Priest, amount, including men, women, and children, to 1,300 souls; those of the other four churches to about 600; the remaining three churches to about 700; making together 2,600.

The whole of these are descendants of a body of Roman Catholics, who, about a century ago, removed from below the Ghauts and settled there. Their chief employment is distillation of spirits; besides the above there are at present at Belgaum, in his Majesty's 41st regiment of foot, 279 men, 43 women, and 44 children, Roman Catholics, and 2,500 (sepoys, pioneers, drummers, fifers, and camp followers) among the native troops, besides some of the same description, under the junior Priests at Dhauwar and Kelapoor.

The acting Collector of Poona reports that there is one church and two Priests under his collectorate, and that the only Catholic inhabitants there, are a few servants and followers attached to the Camp at Poona. He does not report the sources from which they derive their support, but from the Accountant-generals statement it appears, that one of them receives an allowance from Government of Rs. 50 per month, and the other Rs. 25.

The Collector of Khandesh reports that there are two small churches in his

collectorate, one at Malligaum and the other at Dhoolia; there is only one Priest in Khandesh who resides at Dhoolia, he proceeds to Malligaum once in six or seven weeks to perform mass, he receives Rs. 30 per month from the Government, which is considered as a salary for performing mass on public days; in addition to this, he is generally paid by individuals one rupee for each baptism, and one for each burial, and five rupees for each marriage; but these are not established fees, they are dispensed with, when the parties are in low circumstances; for all extra masses on account of individuals for their departed friends, or other purposes, half a rupee is paid; the amount of those fees may average about 12 rupees per mensem. The Priest in Khandesh is not at all content with his allowances, as he could obtain more than double the sum in Bombay, but, he understands, he has been sent up to Khandesh much against his inclination. There are about 200 Roman Catholics in Khandesh, some of whom are very respectable men, and who serve the Government as accountants, English writers, &c.; others are personal servants and cooks of European gentlemen. An addition of 10 Rs. per month has lately been granted to him to defray the expense of his proceeding to Malligaum.

The Collector in the Northern Conkan has handed up a statement, shewing the number of Roman Catholic churches, the number of the Priests belonging to them, the sources whence they derive their support, and the number of the Roman Catholic houses and subjects in his district, to which we beg to draw your Honourable Court's attention.

That the Roman Catholic faith is rapidly losing ground in his Zillah, there can be little doubt. Upwards of 1,200 families, Coolies, left the church during the raging of the cholera, and returned to the worship of their forefathers; from what he has observed, however, the change was merely in name, the greater number calling themselves *Christians* are in fact idolaters; some, it is said, worship the Hindoo gods secretly in their houses, although they attend the church, and almost all conceive the images of the saints as gods, and worship them in that light.

Few, very few of the Christians, resident in his Zillah, are descended from the Portuguese families, they are generally converted Koombies, Bundarees, Coolies, and a few Brahmins; and the most extraordinary circumstance is, that most of them still adhere to the former prejudices of caste, and rarely intermarry, and in some parts will not eat together, notwithstanding which they are considered as brethren of the Church of Christ.

The cause of this ignorance must originate in the extremely depressed state of the clergy, and this is caused by the wretched pittance obtainable in each parish, no families of respectability would think of educating any member for such a station. The vicars of Salsette, in their petition to Government, dated in December, 1826, stated that the churches are almost "all in great decay, and going to ruin; and there is nothing left for their repairs. The parishioners are so very poor and miserable that they can scarcely maintain themselves and families." Some of the churches are little better than a heap of ruins.

Considering the description of the Priests generally, the Collector hardly knows whether the want of them in many places is a disadvantage or not, if men of education and character could by any means be appointed, the advantage would be

certain. The statement now forwarded shews 13 Priests officiating over 24 churches or parishes, in the Island of Salsette, the Priest at Tannah having the charge of four churches. The Priest of Agasee in the Mahim Talooka has charge of the churches of Tarapoor and Dahnoo, or rather parishes, (for the church at the latter place is completely destroyed,) a distance of 20 coss, but at present there are not many Christians in those two parishes.

Extract from Public Letter to Bombay, dated 23rd July (No. 26), 1833. Answer to Letter dated 2nd November (No. 28), 1831:—

Par. 3. In the first of the letters under reply, you bring to our notice the dilapidated state, and miserably poor condition of the Roman Catholic Churches under your Presidency, and suggest to us the propriety of sanctioning the sum of 400 or 500 rupees a month, in addition to the charge now borne by your Government for the support of that religion, being distributed amongst the different parishes of Salsette and other places where a considerable number of Roman Catholics may reside.

In our despatch of the 23d January, 1828, we communicated to you our opinions respecting the policy which should be pursued towards the Roman Catholics at Bombay and its dependencies, observing, that as at the date of the transfer of Bombay to the Company, the Roman Catholic population were secured in the full enjoyment of their privileges as well as in the free exercise of their religion, we felt that they were entitled to protection, and that we would not prohibit you from affording pecuniary assistance to the Roman Catholic clergy in cases where the refusal of such assistance might by possibility involve the dispersion and apostacy to heathenism of their congregations.

5. In the spirit of those instructions, and trusting to your discretion in the distribution of the amount, we authorize you to disburse in the manner you have suggested, such further sum, not exeeeding 400 rupees a month; as may be necessary for the decent maintenance and support of the Roman Catholic clergy within the districts subject to your authority.

6. The second letter under reply relates to the assistance afforded by Government towards rebuilding the Churches of Nossa Senhora de Esperança of Bombay, and of Nossa Senhora dos Remedios, in the district of Bassein, and requests our opinion on the subject of such grants generally.

7. Although the grant of Rs. 14,000 towards rebuilding the church of N. S. de Esperança is large, we are satisfied from a consideration of the proceedings of Government connected with the removal of the church from the Esplanade in 1804, and rebuilding it on another site, that your Government was bound to assist the parishioners in erecting a new church; and that the amount of that assistance was not greater than the exigency of the case required.

8. We do not object to the donation of Rs. 300 which you authorised conditionally to be made towards rebuilding the church at Bassein.

Madras Roman Catholics.—The following is from the

Acting Superintendent of Police, dated Madras, 4th Nov. 1834. He says,—

The statement marked No. 1. may be relied upon as perfectly correct, with, perhaps, the exception of the extent of the respective congregations, upon which point I found the greatest difficulty to fix on a true *data* by which to calculate the number claimed by the different churches; without, however, being enabled to state positively the number of *each* congregation, the *whole* Roman Catholic population may be fairly considered about 60,000 in and near Madras.

The statement No. 2. furnished by the Secretary of the Bishop of St. Thomé is useful, inasmuch that the *amount* of the funds possessed by the different churches is correct.

Statement No. 3, by Mr. Satur, who is attached to the Capuchin Mission, gives no information except on the Capuchin churches.

STATEMENT OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCHES, THEIR VICARS, AND THEIR RESPECTIVE FUNDS.

Cathedral of St. Thomé, the acting Bishop Fr. Manuel da Ave Maria; about 20,000 pagodas, four houses to be rented, and two gardens. Church of Santa Rita at do. under do.; about 1,200 pagodas, and a house to be rented. Church of St. Domingos, do. no Vicar; two houses to be rented. Church of Madre de Deos, do. Rd. Manuel S. de Jesus; a garden and 500 pagodas. Church of Lazarus, do. do.; a cocoa-nut tree garden. Church of Discanço, Rd. Antonio F. dor Arcanjos; supported by the estate of the late Mr. J. de Monte. Church of Lur, Rd. Fr. Francisco das Dores; about 500 pagodas, a house to be rented, and a garden. Church of Little Mount, no Vicar; a garden of paddy fields. Church of St. Thomas' Mount, Rd. Antonio Rozario Cardozas; about 2,500 pagodas, and two houses to be rented. Church of Covelong, Rd. Luis Rubeiro; about 64,000 Rs. but there is a seminary to be supported also with the same fund. Church of Poonmalay, Rd. Antonio Joze Pires; pagodas 2,500. Church of Pulicat, no Vicar; no fund. Church of Vepery, Rd. Fr. Felix; no fund; at present in charge of Rd. Muhille. Church of Periapauleum, no Vicar; no fund. Church of Madaverum, no Vicar; no fund. Church of Wallajawpettah, no Vicar; no fund, Church of Capuchins, of Madras, Rd. Fr. John Baptista; about 30,000 pagodas, and two houses. Church of St. John at Madras, Rd. Dimingos J. A. Pereira; supported by the estate of Mr. J. De Monte. Church of Parchery at Madras, Rd. Jannario Saldanha; no fund, but is supported by the Cathedral fund. Church of Royaporam, no Vicar; about 20,000 pagodas (boatmens' funds.) Church another, at Madras, no Vicar; supported by the Capuchins.

STATEMENT, shewing the number of Catholic churches at Madras, St. Thomas's Mount, Pulicat, Covelong, and Periapalliam, the extent of their respective congregations, and the mode in which they are supported.

Situation of the Churches.	Names.	The extent of their respective congregations, including all classes.	Names of the Ministers officiating in each church.	Under what Jurisdiction.	How supported, whether from any distinct funds or from any endowments, such as houses, &c. and to what amount.	Remarks.
Madras Black Town	Blessed Virgin Mary	About 12,000	Don Fré Pedro de Alcantara, Vicar Apostolic of the Capuchin Mission at Madras.	Capuchin Mission.	By its own fund, to the amount of 57,000 pagodas & two houses, besides other sums, forming an aggregate of about 20,000 pagodas, allotted for certain specific objects.	Built in 1785 by public contributions; the fund exclusively belonging to the church was originally acquired by the compensation of 13,000 pagodas, made by Government on account of the demolition of a church in the fort which the Portuguese inhabitants built, and the rest by legacies, donations, &c. for the maintenance of the priests, charity schools, &c.
Ditto	St. John	1,500	Rev. D. I. A. Pereira.	See, St. Thomé.	By the estate of the late Mr. John D'Monte. The Priest receives 10 pagodas per mensem from the rents of several houses, appropriated to charitable purposes.	This church was established at the particular instance of a large body of Roman Catholics, who, annoyed at the conduct of the Capuchin friars, petitioned Government, and founded it in 1815 under the auspices of the See of St. Thomé. A range of bazars belongs to the church, the rent of which goes towards the liquidation of a debt contracted for its benefit, to the amount of 2,500 rupees.
Parcherry	Blessed Virgin Mary	10,000	Rev. I. Saldanha.	Ditto.	By the See of St. Thomé.	Built by the headmen and other christian parials of the place, and the assistance of one Thomas D'Souze, Esq. an opulent Portuguese merchant.
Royapooram	St. Peter	10,000	None attached at present.	Ditto.	By its own fund, about 40,000 rupees.	Built by the christian boatmen from funds raised by their own contributions, &c. The original amount of these contributions was about 70,000 rupees, 30,000 of which went towards the building of the church.
Ditto	Mater Doloroza	1,000	Ditto.	Capuchin Mission.	By the Capuchin Mission. No Minister is attached to it. Service is occasionally performed.	Built lately by the Capuchins.
Near the Monegar Choultry	St. Roche and Lazaro	200	No Vicar.	Ditto.	Ditto ditto ditto.	
Vepery	St. Andrew	4,000	Rev. Mr. Felix.	Ditto.	By its own fund.	Built by the Capuchins having their burying ground there. Built by Father Felix, a Capuchin friar, from his own funds.

Madeveram	St. George	..	100	No Vicar.	Capuchin Mission.	No fund or priest.	A small chapel, built by public contributions from the Catholics, who have landed property at Madeveram. Foundation laid for a larger building.
St. Thomé	St. Thomas's Cathedral	..	..	Fré Manuel Da Avi Maria, Acting Bishop.	See, St. Thomé.	By its own fund.	Erected by the King of Portugal when the See of St. Thome was established. Fund about 20,000 pagodas, besides four houses and two gardens, partly the endowment of the King of Portugal, and the rest from legacies, &c. The See is under the immediate patronage of that Monarch.
Ditto	St. Rita	..	..	No Vicar.	Ditto.	By its own fund, about 1,200 pagodas.	No Minister attached to it. Service is occasionally performed.
Ditto	St. Domingo	..	15,000	Rev. I. S. D'Souza.	Ditto.	By the rent of two houses belonging to the church.	
Ditto	Madre De Deos	..	..	Rev. M. S. DeJesus.	Ditto.	By its own fund 500 pagodas, and the rent of a garden.	
Ditto	St. Lazaro	..	..	Ditto.	Ditto.	By the Bishoprick. A garden belongs to the church.	On Tuesdays this church is opened, and Divine Service performed, when charitable donations, in candles, oil, and other commodities, are obtained to a considerable amount, adequate to the support of the church, &c.
Luz	Blessed Virgin Mary	..	1,500	Rev. Fré Francisco Dos Dores.	Ditto.	By its own fund about 500 pagodas, and a house and garden belonging to the church.	
Near Moubray Gardens	Ditto	..	500	Rev. A. F. De Arcanjos.	Ditto.	By the estate of the late Mr. John De Monte.	
Little Mount	Ditto	..	100	No Vicar.	Ditto.	By the rent of Paddy Fields, &c. belonging to the church.	No Minister is attached to it. Service is occasionally performed.
St. Thomas's Mount	Ditto	..	..	Rev. A. R. Cardoza.	Ditto.	By its own fund about 2,500 pagodas, and two houses belonging to the church.	An allowance is also granted by Government on account of the European troops in the cantonment.
Ditto	Ditto	..	5,000	Ditto.	Ditto.	No fund.	Built by public contributions. Service is occasionally performed.
Ditto	St. Francis Havier	..	..	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto ditto.
Covelong	Blessed Virgin Mary	..	500	Rev. L. Ribeiro.	Ditto.	By its own fund about 64,000 rupees, bequeathed by the late Mr. John D'Monte.	A Portuguese seminary is also supported at Covelong out of the interest arising from the same fund.
Poonamallie	St. Anthony	..	1,500	Rev. A. I. Pires.	Ditto	By its own fund about 2,500 pagodas, bequeathed by the late Mr. J. D'Monte.	
Pulicat	Blessed Virgin Mary	..	2,000	No Vicar.	Ditto.	No fund.	Built by the Catholic inhabitants of the place. Service is occasionally performed.
Wallajahpettah	Ditto	..	500	Ditto.	Capuchin Mission.	Ditto.	Built by public contributions. Service is occasionally performed.
Periapallium	Ditto	..	100	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto. ditto.

N. B. As some of the churches derive support from the rents of houses and lands belonging to the estate of the late Mr. D'Monte, the amount allowed to each depends upon the actual receipts realized from time to time.

The Roman Catholic establishments which now enjoy the protection and support of the E. I. Company, include *four* apostolical vicars, with authority direct from the Pope; nominated by the Society, *De Propaganda Fide*, and stationed at *Pondicherry*, *Verapoly*, *Bombay*, and *Agra*. There is also a prefect of the Romish mission at Nepaul. These apostolical vicars have under them in their several dioceses a number of priests; most of whom are natives of India, and have been educated in Indian seminaries by European ecclesiastics.

There are also *two* Archbishops and *two* Bishops, presented by the *King of Portugal*. The Archbishops are of *Goa*, who is the Metropolitan and Primate of the Orient; and of *Cranganore*, in *Malabar*. The Bishops are, of *Cochin in Malabar*, and *St. Thomas at Madras*. The latter includes *Calcutta* in his diocese; where he has a legate, who has under his superintendence fourteen priests and ten churches, viz. in Calcutta, one; in Serampore, one; in Chinsurrah, one; in Bandel, one; in Cosimbazar, one; three at Chittagong; in Backergunge, one; and in Bowal, one.

The priests and churches under the presidencies of Madras and Bombay are very numerous, exclusive of those which were formerly Syrian churches, and have been, as already mentioned, incorporated with that of Rome.

The Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay, who, with his Vicar-general, resided on the island, has under his jurisdiction there five churches, inclusive of a new church on the island of Colaba, and two chapels. These are connected with these establishments thirteen priests, exclusive of the Bishop and his Vicar. All the churches, except Colaba, have sufficient endowments for their support, and that of their priests.

The principal church, which is dedicated to N. S. da Esperança, formerly stood on the Esplanade; but in the year 1804 it was removed at the Company's expense, and a new one erected by Salliah Mahomed Fuzeel. This building cost about 4,000*l*. In 1831 it was discovered that the work had been badly executed, and the church was then ready to fall,

in consequence of which the Company made a further grant of 14,000 rupees, nearly 2,000*l.*, towards its repair.

At Surat there are two churches under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Bombay. The oldest was erected in the year 1624; and it is a remarkable circumstance that for many years this church enjoyed a monthly income of 126 rupees, 2 annas paid by the Nabob of Surat, by virtue of a Sunnud from the Emperor at Delhi. This endowment ceased to be paid when Surat came entirely under the control of the Company; but the church is still in possession of freehold property, yielding a monthly sum sufficient for its support. The second church is wholly supported by the Company, who pay the priest his monthly stipend of 40 rupees. The stated worshippers in these two churches somewhat exceed one hundred.

The other Roman Catholic churches under the Presidency of Bombay are as follow: one in Broach, which was erected, and is still supported, by voluntary subscription, excepting a monthly stipend of 30 rupees to the priest, paid by the Company: one at Baroda, supported in the same way: the church of N. S. los Remedios at Bassein, to the re-edification of which, in the year 1832, the Company contributed liberally; a church at Poonah, with two priests, who enjoy stipends paid by the Company: one at Malwa; one at Vingorla; one at Viziadroog; one at Rutnagherry, erected in 1822, with the aid of a grant from the Company, and one at Hurree.

Notwithstanding the forms and ceremonials of the Roman Catholic church approximate so closely to the Hindoo worship (as often observed to me by the late Rammohun Roy); there have been few converts to the Creed of Rome, and those who have become, nominally, converts to the Catholic church,*

* By a Government regulation of 1831, any Hindoo who may become a convert to christianity does not forfeit rights of caste or inheritance, or any temporal advantages connected with caste. This is but just in a Christian Government acting on the broadest principles of toleration. Thus when litigations for property or personal services appropriated as endowments for the support of the Hindoo or Mahomedan religion arise, the inter-

have relinquished, it is true, one faith, but without adopting another, while the principles of morality were too loose to stand as a substitute for religion.

PROTESTANT CHURCH.—We may now proceed to observe how far the established church extends, premising that in this as in the foregoing instances, every aid has been furnished by the E. I. Company's Government which could promote the cause of true religion and its comcomitants—charity, peace, and happiness. The following detail shews, first, the state of the Established Church in Bengal, according to the latest return in 1830, and the expenses incurred there, from the date of Calcutta being made a Bishop's See in 1814 to 1831.

Stations.	Congregations.		Stations.	Congregations.	
	Civil.	Military.		Civil.	Military.
Two Chaplains:			Under 1 Chaplain:		
Cathedral (Calcutta)	650	..	Ghazeepore	uncertain.	380
Old Church (Calcutta)	400	..	Buxar	15	75
St. James's (Calcutta)	260	..	Saugor	40	116
Fort Church (Calcutta)	84	210	Under 1 Chaplain:		
The Archdeacon, acting:			Agra	..	750
			Muttra	..	100
Dum Dum	..	700	Allyghur	..	60
Barrackpore	12	100	Etawah	..	20
Chinsurah	144	310	Under 1 Chaplain:		
Berhampore	..	275	Bareilly	..	60
Under 1 Chaplain:			Almorah	..	25
Dacca	20	uncertain.	Havilbaugh	..	15
Chittagong	12		Moradabad	..	30
Jelalpore	8		Shajehanpore	..	30
Mymensing	8		Under 1 Chaplain:		
Tipperah or Barrisal	15		Delhi	22	34
Under 1 Chaplain:			Rajapore	..	88
Benares or Secrole	100	35	Meerut	108	1,530
Chunar	250	..	Nusseerabad	..	60
Mirzapore	30	..	Cawnpore	377	1,667
Jaunpore	40	..	Under 1 Chaplain:		
Under 1 Chaplain:			Kurnaul	..	160
Patna	50	..	Loodianah	..	50
Muzzuferpore	24	..	Hanse	..	30
Gyah	12	..	Mhow	..	210
Dinapore	uncertain.	320	Cuttack	..	..
Allahabad	20	80			

The returns of the congregations attending the churches at *Neemuch, Bogiepore, Cuttack, Futtyghur, Saugor, Howrah,* and the chapel at the *European Barracks,* are not given.

ference of the magistrate amounts to a direct recognition of rights connected with or growing out of the several religious distinctions of the party. British India can scarcely therefore be said to have a *State religion,* —it is tolerant, protective and auxiliary to each and every creed, allowing the light of reason and the convictions of truth to operate in every direction unaided by physical force and unmolested by bigotry or fanaticism.

Name or Station of Church, &c.	Expenditure for Construction, &c. to Feb. 1831.	Yearly Allowance of Establishment for 1832-33.	Name or Station of Church, &c.	Expenditure for Construction, &c. to Feb. 1831.	Monthly Allowance of Establishment &c. to Feb. 1831.
Presidency:			Gorruckpore	1,200	421
St. John's, the Cathedral ..	2,345	12,646	Ghazeepore	20,478	815
The Old or Mission Church	6,000	5,859	Dinapore	29,913	—
St. Peter's Church	1,15,149	1,947	Saugor	31,414	834
St. James's Church	63,065	3,276	Allahabad	1,910	577
Room in General Hospital ..	12,038	—	Cuttack	5,444	269
Barrackpore	—	387	Chunar	—	343
Cawnpore	60,409	698	Berhampore	—	367
Benares	11,601	631	Nusseerabad ..	1,406	451
Dacca	14,824	877	Ditto, New Church ..	5,453	—
Dum Dum	58,441	1,647	Chinsurah	4,654	713
Agra	28,793	362	Kurnaul	1,354	660
Patna	—	137	Neemuch	302	247
Meerut	54,697	2,092	Moradabad	1,988	—
Nomillah	24,255	—	Boglepore	200	—
Howrah	4,585	1,959	Hansc	21	—
Mhow	502	296	Muttra	78	—
Nagpore	99	—	Allyghur	16	—
Futtyghur	3,430	95	Bimagepore	—	1,106
Burdwan	2,181	—	Secrole	—	218
			Furruckabad	—	334
			Bareilly	—	137

The foregoing tables are given (as are also several others in this volume) partly in order that more complete returns may in future be kept or prepared in India, in the statistics of which we are sadly deficient, the present being the first public effort to afford a *complete view* of Indian statistics.

The following is the total expense incurred for the Bengal Established Church from 1815 to 1832-33:—

Years.	Ordinary Monthly Expenditure.	Contingent Monthly Expenditure.	Total Monthly Expenditure.	Total Annual Expenditure.	Years.	Ordinary Monthly Expenditure.	Contingent Monthly Expenditure.	Total Monthly Expenditure.	Total Annual Expenditure.
1815	11,626	248	11,874	1,42,498	1825	26,962	1,798	28,760	4,39,614
1816	20,339	556	20,895	2,50,742	1826	29,675	1,395	31,070	4,14,516
1817	22,178	388	22,566	2,70,795	1827	30,999	2,379	33,378	4,60,311
1818	22,838	459	23,297	2,79,566	1828				4,52,803
1819	22,729	922	23,651	2,83,823	1829				4,49,663
1820	22,463	857	23,320	2,79,844	1830				4,45,128
1821	21,378	1,721	23,099	2,77,197	1831				4,88,243
1822	22,446	1,147	23,563	2,82,758	1832	No distinct Returns per Month.			4,31,610
1823	19,963	1,205	21,168	2,54,027	1833				
1824	24,971	3,152	28,123	3,57,411	1834				

An official letter from the Archdeacon of Bombay (10th Nov. 1831) thus details the state of the Protestant Church under that Presidency; *en passant*, it may be remarked that

the number of chaplains allowed is fifteen, but in 1832 ten only were present, owing to sickness, &c.

Stations.	Number of Europeans.	Stations.	Number of Europeans.	Stations.	Number of Europeans.
1. St. Thomas's Church, Bombay.	—	6. Kirkee	667	14. Belgaum	843
2. Bombay Garrison	—	7. Ahmednuggur....	754	15. Darwar.....	30
3. Colabah with Bombay Harbour....	—	8. Malcolm Peth	70 to 100	16. Surat.....	30
4. Byculiah (New Church.).....	—	9. Dapooree	22	17. Sholapore	138
5. Poonah	1,860	10. Deesah.....	1,014	18. Bhooj	117
		11. Ahmedabad.....	40	19. Malligaum	54
		12. Baroda.....	38	20. Rajcote	30
		13. Tannah.....	60		

In the above statement, four chaplains are assigned to the islands of Bombay and Colabah, in conformity with the opinion of the late bishop, Dr. Turner.

The following official documents, 1, 2, and 3, further illustrate the state of the established church at Bombay, according to the latest returns.

Table, No. 1.—Ecclesiastical Charges.

In the Year	Rupees.	In the Year	Rupees.
1824-25	2,88,981 2 26	1830-31	
1825-26	2,19,286 1 98	1831-32	
1826-27	2,17,267 3 15	1832-33	
1827-28	2,25,955 2 67	1833-34	
1828-29		1834-35	
1829-30		1835-36	

No. 2.—Charges in the Ecclesiastical Department under the Heads of Salaries and Establishments (per annum, and in rupees).

Years.	Salaries.	Establishments.	Total.	Years.	Salaries.	Establishments.	Total.
1815	43,937	4,263	48,201	1825	148,479	30,152	178,632
1816	68,577	4,263	72,840	1826	139,853	36,069	175,922
1817	84,777	4,611	89,388	1827	161,571	51,352	212,923
1818	88,965	4,755	93,720	1828			
1819	96,665	5,979	102,645	1829			
1820	101,867	6,603	108,471	1830			
1821	112,830	8,667	121,498	1831			
1822	108,103	14,727	122,831	1832			
1823	92,611	20,757	113,369	1833			
1824	123,433	17,781	141,215	1834			

No. 3.—Statement of Expences incurred in the Construction and Repairs of Churches, from 1818 to 1827.

Name of Church.	When finished.	Expense of Erection.	Repairs.	Total.	Remarks.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Surat . .	1823	58,328	—	58,328	Excess above estimate Rs. 28,328.
Scotch Church .	1818	56,582	—	56,582	
Kaira . .	1824	74,756	—	74,756	Excess above estimate Rs. 34,169, exclusive of Plate, Rs. 1,400.
St. Thomas's Church	—	—	30,669	30,669	This includes repairs to 1819 only,
Poonah . .	1824	42,509	446	42,955	from which period Rs. 7,200
Tannah . .	1825	43,553	—	45,553	appear to have been allowed for repairs and establishments, against which the receipts from pews are to be set off, the amount of which is not ascertainable here.
			Rs.	3,08,843	
Churches erected which are unnoticed either in the Public or Ecclesiastical Correspondence.					
N. Concan . .	1825	14,348			
Daporee . .	—	9,012			
New Church E. Zillah North of the Myhee	1826	9,091			
Baroda . .	1825	11,591			
Mhow . .	1826	8,200			
Koorkee . .	1827	3,760			
				56,002	
			Total Rs.	3,64,845	
Roman Catholic Church at Colaba	1826	—	—	17,421	
				3,82,266	

Expences of Civil, Military, and Church Establishments at Bombay.

Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.	Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
		Rupees.	Rupees.			Rupees.	Rupees.
1815	Civil Establishment	32,177	4,263	1819	Civil Establishment	33,977	4,347
	Military Ditto .	11,760			Military Ditto .	53,847	1,632
					Scotch Church .	8,839	
		43,937				96,665	5,979
1816	Civil Establishment	32,177	4,263				
	Military Ditto .	27,559		1820	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,367
	Scotch Church .	8,839			Military Ditto .	58,467	1,236
					Scotch Church .	9,421	
		66,577				1,01,867	6,603
1817	Civil Establishment	32,177	4,263				
	Military Ditto .	43,759	348	1821	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,919
	Scotch Church .	8,839			Military Ditto .	69,178	2,748
					Scotch Church .	9,673	
		84,777	4,611				
						1,12,830	8,667
1818	Civil Establishment	33,977	4,263				
	Military Ditto .	46,147	492	1822	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,919
	Scotch Church .	8,839			Military Department	64,451	8,808
					Scotch Church .	9,673	
		88,965	4,755				
						1,08,103	14,727

Expences of Civil and Military Establishments, &c. at Bombay—*continued.*

Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
		Rupees.	Rupees.
1823	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,577
	Military Ditto .	43,759	15,180
	Scotch Church .	13,434	
	Catholic . .	1,440	
		92,611	20,757
1824	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,601
	Military Ditto .	67,759	12,180
	Scotch Church .	19,656	
	Catholic . .	2,040	
		1,23,433	17,781
1825	Civil Establishment	46,777	5,977
	Military Ditto .	80,000	24,155
	Scotch Church .	19,662	
	Catholics . .	2,040	
		1,48,479	30,152
1826	Civil Establishment	47,077	8,673
	Military Ditto .	70,593	27,396
	Scotch Church .	19,662	
	Catholics . .	2,520	
		1,39,853	36,069
1827	Civil Establishment	44,677	9,684
	Military Ditto .	92,851	31,668
	Scotch Church .	20,862	
	Catholics . .	3,180	
		1,61,571	41,352
1828	Civil . .	65,419	9,512
	Military . .	1,10,244	13,308
1829	Civil . .	68,419	10,458
	Military . .	1,19,064	13,704
1830	Civil . .	79,082	12,387
	Military . .	1,24,224	13,176
1831	Civil . .	79,922	11,035
	Military . .	1,00,308	12,876
1832	Civil . .	64,302	10,111
	Military . .	92,640	11,904

Expences of Civil, Military, and Church Establishments at Madras.

Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
		Rupees.	Rupees.
1815	Civil Establishment	42,350	2,948
	Military . .	78,736	4,458
		1,21,086	7,106
1816	Civil Establishment	47,448	2,948
	Military . .	86,608	5,334
		1,34,056	8,282
1817	Civil Establishment	1,76,218	43,241
	Scotch Church .	10,500	
	Catholics . .	2,226	
	Missionary . .	2,048	
		1,90,992	
1818	Civil Establishment	1,93,496	15,237
	Scotch Church .	10,500	
	Catholics . .	2,226	
	Missionary . .	1,100	
		2,07,322	
1819	Civil Establishment	1,61,999	12,789
	Scotch Church .	10,500	
	Catholics . .	2,226	
	Missionary . .	1,620	
		1,76,345	
1820	Civil Establishment	1,70,332	15,284
	Scotch Church .	10,500	
	Catholics . .	1,800	
	Missionary . .	1,200	
		1,83,832	
1821	Civil Establishment	1,78,160	14,626
	Scotch Church .	10,500	
	Catholics . .	1,800	
	Missionary . .	1,200	
		1,91,660	

Expences of Civil and Military Establishments, &c. at Madras—*continued.*

Years.	Salaries per Annum.	Rupees.	Establishments per Annum. Rupees.	Years.	Salaries per Annum.	Rupees.	Establishments per Annum. Rupees.
1822	Civil Establishment	1,70,296	15,447	1825	Civil Establishment	1,56,568	13,592
	Scotch Church .	10,500			Scotch Church .	18,375	
	Catholics . .	2,250			Catholics . .	2,562	
	Missionary . .	1,806			Missionary . .	2,586	
		1,84,852				1,80,091	
1823	Civil Establishment	1,54,547	14,376	1826	Civil Establishment	1,63,442	18,437
	Scotch Church .	10,500			Scotch Church .	18,375	
	Catholics . .	2,562			Catholics . .	5,598	
	Missionary . .	3,510			Missionary . .	1,080	
		1,71,119				1,88,495	
1824	Civil Establishment	1,64,438	15,710	1827	Civil Establishment	1,93,922	21,217
	Scotch Church .	10,500			Scotch Church .	18,375	
	Catholics . .	2,802			Catholics* . .	6,019	
	Missionary . .	4,560			Missionary . .	1,050	
		1,82,300				2,19,366	
				1828	Salaries . .	2,01,306	10,961
				1829	Ditto . .	2,18,082	20,316
				1830	Ditto . .	1,85,208	23,976
				1831	Ditto . .	1,87,170	25,128
				1832	Ditto . .	1,86,343	23,604

* The controul of the Capuchin Friars in and about Madras is as follows: The church situated in Armenian St. called Queen of Angels. The chapel situated at Royapooram, called Mother of Affliction. The chapel situated at Wallajapettah, near Triplicane, called Lady of Purification. The church situated at Vepery, called St. Andrew. The chapel situated near Monigar Choultry, called St. Roque and St. Lazar. The Chapel situated at Big Parcherry, near the mint, called Lady of Assumption, formerly under the controul of the Capuchins, is since 1824, under the controul of the acting Bishop of St. Thomé. The church situated at Royapooram, called St. Peter, formerly under the controul of the Capuchins, is from 1826 under the controul of the said acting Bishop. The chapel situated near the market, erected in 1815, now called St. John's Church, by order of the then acting Bishop of St. Thomé for the use and benefit of the Rev. Father Eustaquio, a Capuchin Friar, stands under the controul of the present acting Bishop. The funds which the Capuchin Friars possess amount to about 180,000 rupees, most of which is the acquirement of their predecessors, and the rest legacies by will of several testators, to which the superior for the time being of the said Capuchin church, situated in Armenian-street, is the executor. The interest of these funds are for the support and maintenance of the Capuchin Friars, charitable purposes, pious works, and decorum of the said church, situated in Armenian-street, under the superintendence of the said superior. The chapel of the Mother of Affliction is supported by the Capuchins; the chapel of the Lady of Purification by the revenues thereof, and by alms of the public. The church of St. Andrew by the revenues thereof,

and from rent of the houses belonging to that church. The chapel of St. Roque and Lazar by the Capuchins. The chapel of the Lady of Assumption by the revenues thereof, and by alms of the public. The church of St. Peter by the funds thereof, which are under the controul of the Marine Board, acquired by boat people, and the church of St. John by the funds of the late Mr. John de Monnte, who was a benefactor of the said church, and from Revenues thereof.

As to the number of Europeans or their descendants who attend these churches and chapels on Sunday and other festival days, I cannot exactly say; but to the best of my knowledge and belief, I think they may be in all, including the soldiers of the garrison of Fort St. George, to about 700, excluding country-born, Malabar, Pariahs, and boat people, who may be about 10,000; but since a division of Roman Catholics has taken place in 1815, among the country born, a part of these description, to about 400 or 500, frequent the church of St. John, and the rest attend the Capuchin church to a greater number. The Pariahs of Parcherry and boat people to their own churches, where a small body of country born to about 200. in Parcherry, frequent the Chapel of Assumption; and about 100 in the Church St. Peter. The Pariahs of Wallagapettah in their own chapel, where a small body of country born to about 50, frequent there, and at Vipery about 200, among country born, excluding Malabar Sepoys and Pariahs, who may be about 2,000.

Ecclesiastical Establishment of the Three Presidencies.

Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.
The Lord Bishop, Archdeacon, and 37 Chaplains, Of whom 29 were present in 1830, and 8 absent on furlough, &c. &c.	The Bishop, Archdeacon, and 23 Chaplains, Of whom 19 were present in 1830, and 4 absent on furlough, &c. &c.	The Bishop, Archdeacon, and 14 Chaplains, Of whom 11 were present in 1830, and 3 absent on furlough, &c. &c.

The foregoing returns are given more with a view to promote further investigation, and to excite to more uniform and accurate returns, than as explicit statements, though they include all the Manuscripts at the India House, or Board of Controul. In a Return before me of the Expenses of the Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment for the year 1832-1833, and which only arrived in England 5th Feb. 1835, I find that there were Chaplains at Meerut, Messeerabad, Agra, Bareilly, Dacca, Kurnaul, Barrackpoor, Patna, Cawnpore, Chinsurah, Furruckabad, Saugore, Benares, Dinapore, Mhow, Ghazeepore, Neemuch, Berhampore, Allahabad, Dum Dum, Futtyghur and Chunar, all out stations from the Presidency. There were also Four Roman Catholic Priests paid by Government for Ministering to the Soldiery, viz. at Calcutta, Patna, Berhampore and Cawnpore; the total Salaries of the Bishop and Clergy for 1832-33 was, 282,059 S. Rupees; of Four Roman Catholic Priests, 4,474; and of Four Ministers of the Scotch Church, 7,413 Rupees.

Scale of Establishment proposed by the Civil Finance Committee.

Bengal.		Madras.		Bombay.	
Presidency:		Presidency:		Presidency:	
The Lord Bishop.		Archdeacon.		Archdeacon.	
Archdeacon.		1 Senior Chaplain.		1 Senior Chaplain.	
1 Chaplain to the Ld. Bishop.		1 Junior ditto.		1 Junior ditto.	
5 ditto of the Presidency.		1 Chaplain.		1 Chaplain for Colabah, Tannah, and the Harbour of Bombay.	
1 ditto at Barrackpore.		1 ditto at Fort St. George.			
1 ditto at Dum Dum.		1 ditto at Black Town.		Subordinate Stations:	
		1 ditto at St. Thomas's Mount and Poonamelle.		2 Chaplains for Poonah and Kirkee.	
Subordinate Stations:				1 ditto for Surat, Broach and Baroda.	
1 Chaplain at Berhampore.		Subordinate Stations:		1 ditto for Deesa, Ahmednugger and Kaira.	
1 ditto at Dacca.		1 Chaplain at Bangalore.		1 ditto for Belgaum, Darwar and the S. Concan.	
1 ditto at Bhaugulpore.		1 ditto at Trichinopoly.		1 ditto for Rajcote and Cutch.	
1 ditto at Dinapore.		1 ditto at Bellary.		1 ditto for Ahmednuggur and Mulligaum in Candeish.	
1 ditto at Ghazeepore.		1 ditto at Masulipatam.			
1 ditto at Benares.		1 ditto for Cananore and Mangalore.		10 Chaplains.	
1 ditto at Allahabad.		1 ditto at Nagpore.		2 { allowed for furlough and contingencies.	
2 ditto at Cawnpore.		1 ditto for Vizigapatam and Ganjam.			
1 ditto at Furruckabad, or Bareilly.		1 ditto for Nellore, Arcot, and Cuddalore.		12 Total number of Chaplains.	
1 ditto at Agra.		1 ditto for the Neilgherries, Tellicherry and Calicut.			
2 ditto at Meerut				Number at present 14 Chaps.	
1 ditto for Malwa, and Rajpootana		15 Chaplains.		Ditto proposed 12 ditto.	
1 ditto at Saugor.		4 { do. allowed for furlough and contingencies.			
				Proposed reduction 2	
23 Chaplains.		19 Total number of Chaplains.			
6 { ditto allowed for furlough and contingencies.				Receiving per an. Rs.	19,200
		Number at present 23 Chaps.		Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 2 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum.	2,400
29 Total number of Chaplains.		Ditto proposed 19 ditto.			16,800
Number at present 37 Chaps.				Add Scotch Kirk—	
Ditto proposed 29 ditto.		Proposed reduction 4 ditto.		Senior Minister 11,760	
				Junior ditto .. 8,610	20,370
Proposed reduction 8 ditto.					
				Total saving.. Rs.	37,170
Each receiving Rs. 8,610 per annum Rs.	68,880	Each receiving Rs. 7,875 per annum Rs.	31,500		
Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 6 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum.	7,200	Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 4 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum.	4,800		
	61,680		26,700		
Add Scotch Kirk—		Add Scotch Kirk—			
Senior Min. Rs. 12,931		Senior Minister 11,760			
Junior ditto .. 9,482		Junior ditto .. 78,75			
	22,413		19,635		
Total saving.. Rs.	84,093	Total saving.. Rs.	46,335		

The following statement exhibits the several missionary stations formed in India by the London, Baptist, and Wesleyan Societies, with the date of the year when the mission was established at each station, and the number of missionaries resident at each.

London Society:

Calcutta, A. D. 1816, Missionaries, 4; Chinsurah, 1813, 1; Berhampore, 1824, 2; Benares, 1820, 4; Madras, 1805, 4;

Tripassore, 1826, superintended by the Madras Missionaries; Vizagapatam, 1805, 2; Cuddapah, 1822, 1; Chittoor, 1827, 1; Belgaum, 1820, 2; Bellary, 1810, 4; Bangalore, 1820, 2; Salem, 1827, 1; Combaconum, 1825, 1; Coimbatoor, 1830, 1; Nagercoil, 1806, 2; Neyoor, 1828, 2; Quilon, 1821, 1; Surat, 1815, 3; Darwar, 1829, superintended by the Belgaum Missionaries.

Baptist Society.

Calcutta, 1801, Missionaries, 7; Patna, 1832, 1; Digar, 1809, 1; Monghyr, 1816, 2; Sewry, 1807, 1; Cutwa, 1804, 1; Luckyantipore, 1831, 1; Khane, 1831, 1; Bonstollah, 1829, 1.

The above is exclusive of the mission family at Serampore, which is in the Danish territory.

Wesleyan Society.

Madras, 4 Europeans, with native assistants; Bangalore, 4; Negapatam and Melnattam, 1.

[I should be glad to see the Moravian Missionaries settling themselves in India. R. M. M.]

Of the efforts of every class of Missionaries to extend the blessings of education and religion in India, it is difficult to express my warm feelings. The estimable Serampore Missionaries are before alluded to; but, as a further illustration of what other Missionary sects are doing, the following recent account of the American Missionaries in Burmah, will be perused with heartfelt delight.

Missionaries in Burmah.—By a private letter, dated Feb. 1st, from one of the American Missionaries at Maulamaing, we are informed that the printing of the scriptures in the Burmese language is now rapidly going forward at that station. An edition of 3,000 copies of Mr. Judson's translation of the New Testament has been printed, and 2,000 copies of the Gospels of Luke and John are in circulation. It is in contemplation, also, to reprint those two gospels in an edition of 10,000 copies. The greatest part of the edition has been sent to Rangoon for distribution on the great annual festival of Shua-d'-gong, which takes place, we believe, in the present month. It was not only expected that 1,500 or 2,000 copies of the gospels of Luke and John, but 10,000 tracts would be dispersed among the people who would then be assembled from all parts of the adjacent country. The Old Testament, we are informed, is also being translated.

Intelligence of the Christian religion has, since the establishments of the American Mission, previously to the late war in Rangoon, and latterly in Maulamaing, been very extensively made known in the Burmese Empire, particularly in the southern regions.

One of the Missionaries has lately gone amongst the Karens, a singular race men, inhabiting the country to the eastward of Maulamaing, many of whom have, within two years past, embraced Christianity. The object of this visit, besides the common one of making known the gospel, is the establishment of schools. During the past year, a Tract and Spelling Book has been printed in the Karen language. The characters of the language were prepared by the Rev. Mr. Wade, who has lately been compelled by ill health to leave the missionary field and return to America.

From the press at Maulamaing has been published also, a Tract in the Talaing language, during the past year.

The types used in printing the Karen and Talaing languages, so far as they differ from the Burmese, were prepared at the seat of the Mission in Maulamaing, from matrices executed at the Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta.

By a letter from Singapore, we learn that the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Jones, formerly attached to the Mission at Maulamaing, had arrived at that place on their way towards Bankok, in Siam, where it is Mr. Jones's intention to establish himself as a Missionary.

While attempts are thus being made by the American Missionaries to carry the lamp of truth to one portion of the benighted Empire of Burmah, the Serampore Missionaries are engaged in the same benevolent operations in behalf of Arracan. They have lately commenced a re-print of Mr. Judson's translation of the New Testament in the Burmese language, for the use of the Arracanese, having already printed many tracts and some of the Gospels and Epistles, and distributed them, by their agents, throughout a great part of the territory of Arracan.

In referrence to the Roman Catholic Missionaries in India, the Select Committee of Parliament thus report in 1832:—

'The failure of Roman Catholic Missionaries is acknowledged by themselves, and attested by other witnesses; while the progress of the Protestants appears to be daily becoming more successful. Their judicious plan is to establish schools, which they have effected both in the North and South of India. The number of scholars in Bengal alone amounts to about 50,000.'

I am here tempted to subjoin the following extract from the lamented Bishop Heber's primary diocesan charge at Calcutta, which I brought with me from Bengal, and which has not before, I believe, been published in Europe; never was the duty of an Indian clergyman more piously, more eloquently pourtrayed than by that amiable and talented divine, whose memory every well wisher of India must cherish with respect:

'The Indian chaplain must not anticipate the same cheering circumstances which

make the house of the English parochial minister a school and temple of religion, and his morning and evening walk a source of blessing and blessedness. His servants will be of a different creed from himself, and insensible, in too many instances, to his example, his exhortations, and his prayers. His intercourse will not be with the happy and harmless peasant, but with the dissipated, the diseased, and often, the demoralized soldier. His feet will not be found at the wicker gate of the well known cottage; beneath the venerable tree; in the grey church-porch, or by the side of the hop-ground and the corn-field; but he must kneel by the bed of infection or despair, in the barrack, the prison, or the hospital.

'But to the well-tempered, the well-educated, the diligent and pious clergyman, who can endear himself to the poor without vulgarity, and to the rich without involving himself in their vices; who can reprove sin without harshness, and comfort penitence without undue indulgence; who delights in his Master's work, even when divested of those outward circumstances which in our own country contribute to render that work picturesque and interesting; who feels a pleasure in bringing men to God, proportioned to the extent of their previous wanderings: who can endure the coarse (perhaps fanatical) piety of the ignorant and vulgar, and listen with joy to the homely prayers of men long strangers to the power of religion; who can do this, without himself giving way to a vain enthusiasm; and whose good sense, sound knowledge and practical piety, can restrain and reclaim the enthusiasm of others to the due limits of reason and scripture; to him, above all, who can give his few leisure hours to fields of usefulness beyond his immediate duty; and who, without neglecting the European penitent, can aspire to the further extension of Christ's kingdom among the heathen;—to such a man as Martyn was, and as some still are, (whom may the Lord of the harvest long continue to his church) I can promise no common usefulness and enjoyment in the situation of an Indian Chaplain.

'I can promise him, in any station to which he may be assigned, an educated society, and an audience peculiarly qualified to exercise and strengthen his powers of argument and eloquence. I can promise him, generally speaking, the favour of his superiors, the friendship of his equals, and affection, strong as death, from those whose wanderings he corrects, whose distresses he consoles, and by whose sick and dying bed he stands as a ministering angel! Are further inducements needful? I yet can promise more. I can promise to such a man the esteem, the regard, the veneration of the surrounding Gentiles; the consolation, at least, of having removed from their minds, by his blameless life and winning manners, some of the most inveterate and most injurious prejudices which oppose, with them, the reception of the Gospel; and the honour, it may be, (of which examples are not wanting among you) of planting the cross of Christ in the wilderness of a heathen heart, and extending the frontiers of the visible church amid the hills of darkness, and the strongholds of error and idolatry.'

It would be impossible to close this chapter on Christianity in India without referring to the translations of the sacred Scriptures into the several languages written and spoken on the peninsula of Hindoostan. The late Dr. W.

Carey, of Serampore, was the most distinguished labourer in this field, the surprising extent of whose labours I will give on the authority of a memoir of this eminent missionary and philologist, by Mr. Fisher;* to which I may also refer for some interesting particulars of Dr. Carey's life and labours.

'The versions of the Sacred Scriptures which have issued from the Serampore press, and in the preparation of which Dr. Carey took an active and laborious part, are numerous. They are in the following languages:—Sungskrit, Hindee, Brij-Bhassa, Mahratta, Bengalee, Orissa or Ooriya, Telinga, Kurnata, Maldivian, Gujurattee, Buloshee, Pushtoo, Punjabee or Shekh, Kashmeer, Assam, Burman, Pali or Magudha, Tamul, Cingalese, Armenian, Malay, Hindosthanee, and Persian; to which must be added the Chinese. Dr. Carey lived to see the Sacred Text, chiefly by his instrumentality, translated into the vernacular dialects of more than 40 different tribes, and thus made accessible to nearly 200,000,000 of human beings, exclusive of the Chinese Empire, in which the labours of the Serampore Missionaries have been in some measure superseded by those of Dr. Morrison.'

In addition to the versions of the sacred Scriptures in the languages of India, published by Dr. Carey, translations of the Old and New Testaments in the following languages have been completed by Missionaries sent out by the London Society:—

In the *Telinga* or *Teloogoo*, by Messrs. Cran, Des Granges, Pritchett, Gordon, and Howell, between 1812 and 1834.

In the *Canarese*, by Messrs. Reeve and Hands, between 1818 and 1832.

In the *Mahratta*, by Messrs. Wall and Newell.

* See 'Gentleman's Magazine,' May, 1835. The following is the account of Dr. Carey's philological works, from the same authority:

'The Mahratta Grammar was his first work, and was followed by a Sungskrit Grammar, 4to. in 1806; a Mahratta Dictionary, 8vo. in 1810; a Punjabee Grammar, 8vo. in 1812; a Telinga Grammar, 8vo. in 1814; also between the years 1806 and 1810 he published the Raymayana, in the original text, carefully collated with the most authentic MSS. in three volumes, 4to. His philological works of a later date are a Bengalee Dictionary, in three volumes, 4to. 1818, of which a second edition was published in 1825, and another in 8vo. in 1827-1830; a Bhotanta Dictionary, 4to. 1826; also a Grammar of the same language, edited by him and Dr. Marsham. He had also prepared a Dictionary of the Sungskrit, which was nearly completed, when a fire broke out in Serampore, and burnt down the printing office, destroying the impression together with the copy, and other property.'

In the *Goojurattee*, by Messrs. Skinner and Fyvie, between 1820 and 1832.

In the *Hinduwee* and *Urdee*, some books of the Old Testament, by Mr. Robertson.

Of many of these versions of the Scriptures very large editions have been printed and circulated; and it is impossible at the present moment fully to estimate the extent to which they may subserve that great Missionary enterprise, the evangelization of India.

SLAVERY IN BRITISH INDIA.

For the last forty years the E.I. Company's government have been gradually, but safely abolishing slavery throughout their dominions; they began in 1789* with putting down the maritime traffic, by prosecuting any person caught in exporting or importing slaves by sea, long before the British government abolished that infernal commerce in the western world, and they have ever since sedulously sought the final extinction of that domestic servitude which for ages has existed throughout the East, as recognized by the Hindoo and Mahomedan law. Mr. Robertson, in reference to Cawnpore observes:†—

'Domestic slavery exists; but of an agricultural slave I do not recollect a single instance. When I speak of *domestic* slavery, I mean that *status* which I must call slavery for want of any more accurate designation. It does not, however, resemble that which is understood in Europe to be slavery: it is the mildest species of servitude.

'The domestic slaves are certain persons purchased in times of scarcity; children purchased from their parents:

* In their despatches of this date, it was termed an '*inhuman commerce and cruel traffic*;' and French, Dutch, or Danish subjects captured within the limits of their dominions in the act of purchasing or conveying slaves, were imprisoned and heavily fined, and every encouragement was given to their civil and military servants to aid in protecting the first rights of humanity.

† Lords' Evidence, 1687.

they grow up in the family, and are almost entirely employed in domestic offices in the house; not liable to be resold.

'There is a certain species of slavery in South Bahar, where a man mortgages his labour for a certain sum of money; and this species of slavery exists also in Arracan and Ava. It is for his life, or until he shall pay the sum, that he is obliged to labour for the person who lends him the money; and if he can repay the sum, he emancipates himself.

'Masters have no power of punishment recognized by our laws. Whatever may be the provision of the Mohamedan or Hindoo codes to that effect, it is a dead letter; for we would not recognize it. The master doubtless may sometimes inflict domestic punishment; but if he does, the slave rarely thinks of complaining of it. Were he to do so, his complaint would be received.' This, in fact, is the palladium of liberty in England.

In Malabar, according to the evidence of Mr. Baber, slavery as mentioned by Mr. Robertson also exists, and perhaps the same is the case in Guzerat and to the N.; but the wonder is not that such is the case but that it is so partial in extent and fortunately so mild in character, approximating indeed so much towards the feudal state as to be almost beyond the reach as well as the necessity of laws which at present would be practically inoperative. The fact that of 100,000,000 British inhabitants or allowing five to a family, 20,000,000 families, upwards of 16,000,000 are landed proprietors, shews to what a confined extent even domestic slavery exists. A Commission has been appointed by the New Charter to enquire into this important but delicate subject.

STATE OF CRIME IN BRITISH INDIA.

Intimately connected with the Press and education of a people is the state of crime in a country; the judicial establishment of India has been detailed in the 4th Chapter, and here it will only be necessary to refer to some statistics of crime; the official returns on the subject are few, not to the

latest, and consequently most favourable period, and relating principally to the Bengal Presidency—such as they are, however, they demonstrate, that while crime has increased rapidly in England, owing to the poverty of the people and the severity and uncertainty still existing in her criminal laws, the contrary has taken place in the territories of the East India Company; demonstrating the improved condition of the people and the beneficent nature of their government;* for assuredly whatever elevates a nation in morality and temporal happiness, well deserves the appellation of beneficent. To begin with the highest class of offences for examination:—

Number of Persons Sentenced to Death, and to Transportation or Imprisonment for Life, by the Court of Nizamut Adawlut of Bengal, from 1816 to 1827.

First Period.	Sentenced to Death.	To Transportation or Imprisonment for Life.	Second Period.	Sentenced to Death.	To Transportation or Imprisonment for Life.
1816	115	282	1822	50	165
1817	114	268	1823	77	118
1818	54	261	1824	51	145
1819	94	345	1825	66	128
1820	55	324	1826	67	171
1821	58	278	1827	55	153
Totals	490	1,758	Totals	366	880

Decrease of death sentences on first period . . .	124
Ditto of life transportation or imprisonment . . .	878
Total decrease on six years	1,002

The decrease which the foregoing table exhibits will delight every friend of humanity; on death-sentences† there

* Since the first edition of this work went to press, corporal punishments, as the penalty of civil crimes, have been abolished by the Anglo-Indian Government.

† Let it be remembered that sentences of death in India are not merely *sentences*; they are in general fulfilled, unless when extraordinary circum-

was a decrease during the first period of one hundred and twenty-four, and comparing the two last with the two first years, after an interval of ten years, the difference will be more strikingly observed:—

In 1816 and 1817, death sentences . .	number 229
In 1826 and 1827, ditto ditto	122
Decrease on two years	107

If we place the death-sentences in juxta-position with those in England, notwithstanding, as the note will explain, the advantages in favour of England, independent of the population in one country being 60,000,000, in the other scarcely one-fifth of the number, we shall observe yet more the improved state of Indian morality and jurisprudence.

Number of Death-Sentences in England and in India for Five Years.

Years.	In England. Population 12,000,000.	In Bengal. Population 60,000,000.
1823 - -	968	77
1824 - - - -	1,066	51
1825 - - - -	1,036	66
1826 - - - -	1,203	67
1827 - - - -	1,529	55
Total in both Countries -	5,802	316

Thus, while those of India decreased twenty-two between the first and last year, those of England increased five hundred and sixty-one!

stances intervene. The decrease shows, therefore, an actual decrease in crime; not, as would be the case in England, only a decrease of the nominal severity of the law, which in fact is actually taking place from year to year, not only by means of legislative enactments, but also by the unwillingness of jurors to find judgments involving death; yet, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances in a comparison of India with England, the amount of capital convictions is still on the increase in the latter country.

Official returns of English crime come down to 1832, and the following is a comparison for twelve years:—

DEATH SENTENCES IN ENGLAND AND WALES FOR TWELVE YEARS.

From 1811 to 1816	No. 3,181
From 1827 to 1832	. . 8,194
Increase on six years . . .	. No. 5,013

It is terrible to witness such trifling with human life and human feeling as the English returns exhibit; the man who steals a lamb, as well as he who murders the shepherd—he who forges a bank note, as well as he that slays a Bank Director—the impoverished wretch whose necessities or recklessness robs me of my purse, and the miscreant who wantonly takes the life of his sovereign, are equally subjected to the severest doom which earthly vengeance can inflict; or, on the other hand, a premium is held out for crime by the uncertainty of its punishment. A thief reasons thus: 'If I commit this crime, I merely run the chance of being discovered; if that chance fail me, I have another in the law, a flaw in the indictment or so;* and if the second hazard turn up against me and I am sentenced to death, I have a third cast for life, as not more than one in eighteen are executed,† and I may perhaps be one of the seventeen who escape; should I be the unlucky one, why then fate willed it so, and it must be so.' Thus the commission of a crime is made, by the very uncertainty of the laws, to depend on a cast of the die, or the twirl of a tee-totum; and this is what is called justice to society and criminal jurisprudence,

* From 1824 to 1830, there were in England—

Convictions . . .	number 80,882
Acquittals	. 22,330
No Bills found	. 12,387

Thus the number of acquittals and no bills found were nearly equal in number to half the convictions; such is the glorious uncertainty of the law!

† In the seven years ending with 1828, the death sentences in England and Wales were 7,980, of whom 456 were executed!

in this enlightened country and enlightened age! Far better were it to adopt the Draconian code in its full spirit, and let the pickpocket be decapitated by the side of the murderer.*

What is the avowed object of capital punishments? The prevention of crime alone; for all hopes of the reformation of the offender is cut off, by man impiously daring to disobey the command of his Creator, who emphatically declared, 'As I live,' saith the Lord God, '*I desire not the death of a sinner*, but rather that he should turn from his wickedness and live;' yet men—Englishmen—calling themselves Christians, make a mockery of their professions by spilling the blood of the divine image, when acting on the inhuman Jewish code, which declares (as all savage or pagan nations do) 'an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.' The declaration of the Almighty, that 'he who liveth by the sword shall perish by the sword,'† gave no authority to man to be the executioner of that decree; the fulfilment of it rested with the Omnipotent Being, in whose hands are the scales of judgment. But, says my Lord Brougham, man may take away the life of his fellows if it be conducive to the good of society: I deny the abstract right, for earthly creatures possess none but what are in unison with the laws of God, which are based on the eternal and immutable principles of justice; and as to any conventional right, it should first be proved that the destruction of life was necessary to the prevention of crime.‡

* Sir Robert Peel's 'amended' forgery bill contained thirty-five death-punishments.

† Judge Park says, in passing sentence on Cook the murderer, 'Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed;' but does this precept give any legal authority to man? Is it not merely a confirmation of the decree, that those who live by violence shall perish by violence? The divine precept is clearly, that 'man should turn from his wickedness and live.' If the execution of Cook would prevent another individual from committing murder, then there might be some worldly excuse; but there would be no decree from Heaven.

‡ In Russia, capital punishment was abolished with the most beneficial consequences. In France, after the revolution, 115 capital offences were reduced to fewer than 20, with the usual results; even in monkish Por-

It is well known that in proportion to the severity and uncertainty of the laws, offences against person or property are in an inverse ratio. In Tuscany, when capital punishments were abolished *in toto*, crime decreased ;* but in Rome, where executions daily occurred, crime increased: Spain, with more capital punishments by law has more capital offences than any country in Europe; Majorca, under the same political government, but with milder punishments, few crimes being capital by law, has comparatively fewer offences ;† Ireland, with more severe criminal laws than England, is even more rife with bloody deeds‡ than the latter country, which in its turn is yet more so than France, and France still more so than America, where few offences are subject to the deprivation of life. In Prussia capital punishments have been

tugal the light of truth has penetrated with some success; the results in the United States are well known, and the profound as well as eloquent writings of Sydney Taylor demonstrate what a wide field of improvement is open for England to cultivate.

* In a French work on Italy, published in 1793, I find the following confirmation of this statement, which has recently been doubted. The writer, in speaking of Leopold, Prince of Tuscany, thus continues :—' Il est occupé d'une reforme entiere de sa legislation. Il a vu une lumiere nouvelle dans quelques livres de la France; il se hate de la faire passer dans les lois de Florence. Il a commencé par simplifier les lois civiles, et par adoucir les lois criminelles. *Il y a dix ans que le sang n'a coulé en Toscane sur un echafaud.* La liberté seule est bannie des prisons : le grand duc les a remplies de justice et d'humanité.

' *Cet adoucissemement des lois a adouci les mœurs publiques ; les crimes graves deviennent rares depuis que les peines atroces sont abolies : les prisons de la Toscane ont été vides pendant trois mois ! ! !*'

† Westminster Review for July, 1832.

‡ In seven years in Ireland, ending with 1828, the number of persons accused of murder were 2,604! But such is the repugnance of the people to come forward as evidence, that out of the whole number of criminals, but 224 were sentenced to death, and 155 executed. This is the state of the law in a country where the pitch cap, the triangle, and the gallows have superseded mildness, conciliation, and justice. The proportion of crime in 1831 to the number of inhabitants has been in Dublin, 1 in 96; in Edinburgh, where capital punishments are far less frequent, 1 in 540; in London and Middlesex, which stands between both, the proportion has been 1 in 400; and in Cardigan, where a capital punishment is a very rare event, the proportion of commitments to the population is only 1 to 4920.

much lessened, with the usual beneficial results;* as has also been the case in Norway,† Brunswick,‡ and Belgium.§ Thus

* In Prussia, with an average population of 12,000,000, the executions have been comparatively unfrequent. In the 17 years from 1818 to 1834 (inclusive), there have been in all 123 executions, and the crimes for which they took place are as follows:—arson, 1; voluntary manslaughter, 22; murder, 100. The one execution for arson took place in 1818, since which time, consequently, the punishment of death has been inflicted only for intentional homicide of different degrees. Even for murder, the sentence is nearly as often commuted as executed. In the whole 17 years, there were sentenced to death for murder 187, of whom 100 only were executed

With reference to the great diminution in severity of late years:—

In the first three years, 1818, 1819, 1820, there were executed 24.

In the last three years, 1832, 1833, 1834, there were executed 6; 2 in each year.

Murder.—Five years, ending 1824—capitally convicted 69, executed 47; or 68-100.

Five years, ending 1829—capitally convicted 50, executed 26; or 51-100.

Five years, ending 1834—capitally convicted 43, executed 16; or 37-100.

Here there is a diminution of executions in each of the two last periods, and at the same time a diminution of crime. If we compare the two extreme periods, we find one-third *less* crime in the last with 16 executions, than in the first with 47 executions.

† A code of penal law has been prepared by a commission in Norway. It was published in 1834, and has been translated into German. By it the only crimes punished capitally are murder, high treason, robbery where the person robbed dies in consequence of the injuries he has received, and arson where some person has lost his life by the fire.

‡ In the Duchy of Brunswick there was no execution during the reign of Charles William, which lasted from 1780 to 1806; and in a criminal code which has been prepared for Brunswick by Strombeck, an eminent lawyer of that Duchy, no capital punishment is retained.

§ Punishment of death in Belgium:—

Periods.	Total executed for various Crimes.	Capital Convictions.*	
		Murder.	Other capital crimes.
5 Years ending with 1804	235	150	203
5 1809	88	82	70
5 1814	71	64	49
5 1819	26	42	29
5 1824	23	38	23
5 1829	22	34	40
5 1834	None	20	23

* In the last three years twenty-two were sentenced to death for murder, of whom only four were executed.

it is evident that undue severity, when combined with uncertainty, tends exceedingly to increase crime, while it is but a burlesque on religion to make the scaffold a stepping stone to heaven; to make the twenty-four hours intervening between the sentence and execution of the culprit an expiatory period for a long life of guilt.

These remarks are scarcely made with the hope that they will be attended to in England, where the voice of reason as well as of humanity has been almost raised in vain; but if they should be the means of encouraging the judges of the E. I. Company's provinces in the almost holy path they have pursued; or if they should assist in rescuing one individual, whether carved in ebony or in ivory,* from death; or if they should even stimulate others to examine the truth of the doctrine laid down, the aim of the writer will have been accomplished.

Let us now proceed with the Bengal statistics of crime. The last table gave the returns of the Court of Nizamut Adawlut; the following are those of the Courts of Circuit, specifying the nature of the crimes:

No. 1.—Sentences for Offences against the Person, passed by the Courts of Circuit in Bengal, at Two Periods.

Offences.	Number of Persons sentenced.	
	1822 to 1824.	1825 to 1827.
Adultery	51	20
Affray	1,917	1,136
Assault	212	174
Manslaughter	421	250
Rape	3	2
Shooting, wounding, or poisoning	251	199
Sodomy	5	6
Felony & Misdemeanour	189	107
Perjury	147	66
Total ..	3,196	1,960

Sentences of the first period.. No. 3,196
Ditto of the second do..... 1,960

Decrease of crime.. No. 1,236

No. 2.—Sentences for Offences against Property, passed by the Courts of Circuit in Bengal, at Two Periods.

Offences.	Number of Persons sentenced.	
	1822 to 1824.	1825 to 1827.
Arson	66	47
Burglary	1,195	1,036
Cattle stealing	85	31
Child stealing	107	57
Counterfeiting and uttering counterfeit coin ..	47	21
Embezzlement	108	49
Forgery and uttering ..	71	60
Larceny	491	223
Total ..	2,170	1,524

Sentences of the first period.. No. 2,170
Ditto of the last do. 1,524

Decrease of crime.. No 646

* Sir R. Rice, in his evidence before the Lords in 1830, says, that among a population of 150,000 persons in Bombay, during three years, there was but one execution, and that was of an English sergeant.

This is a very great decrease on two years, and in looking at the years preceding those given in the first table, the diminution is yet more gratifying to behold. For instance, adulteries were, from 1816 to 1818, in number 95; felony and misdemeanour, in the same years, 376; shewing a decrease on the former of 75 cases; and on the latter of 269. In the second table there is also a marked improvement in the country.

Burglary.		Cattle Stealing.	
In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 2,853	In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 203
1825 to 1827 - -	1,036	1825 to 1827 - -	31
Decrease	No. 1,817	Decrease	No. 172
Embezzlement.		**Larceny.**	
In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 150	In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 1,516
1825 to 1827 . -	49	1825 to 1827 - -	223
Decrease	No. 101	Decrease	No. 1,293

But if the foregoing Circuit Court returns be refreshing to humanity, those of the magistrates' courts for the Lower and Western provinces of Bengal are much more so, for the decrease of crime is yet more extraordinary, whether as regards offences arising from revenge, from destitution, from bloodthirstiness, or from immorality. The following shews the sentences of two years; if we had them of a more recent date, I am convinced we should observe a still great diminution.*

* The evidence of Mr. Mangles (Lords, 4th March, 1830), is confirmatory of this assumption in reference to the very great diminution in the number of crimes. 'Q. Can you state in what proportion the number of crimes has diminished? A. I think in the Lower Provinces the average of dacoities of late years is about as one and a fraction to seven, as compared with the state of things 25 or 30 years ago.' Mr. Mangles adds, 'in the district of Kishnagur, formerly most notorious for dacoities, that crime has decreased, from an average in former years of 250 or 300, to 18 or 20!'

Comparative Statement of Offences against Property and against the Person, on which the Magistrates passed Sentence in the Lower and Western Provinces of Bengal, during the Years 1826 and 1827.

Crimes.		Number Sentenced. 1826	1827	Decrease of Crime.
Against property.	Arson	154	31	123
	Burglary	2,433	1,995	438
	Frauds and other offences	6,161	3,302	2,859
	Larceny	8,301	7,927	374
	Plundering	768	97	671
	Total - - No.	17,817	13,352	4,465
Against the person.	Assault and battery	6,535	3,965	2,570
	Manslaughter	44	11	33
	Riot	2,259	700	1,559
	Total	8,838	4,676	4,162
Various offences.	Bribery	289	70	219
	Escape from custody	149	72	77
	False complaint	1,728	652	1,076
	Neglect of duty	10,332	6,652	3,680
	Perjury	178	41	137
	Resistance of process	1,010	533	477
	Vagrancy	183	55	128
	Total - - No.	13,869	8,075	5,794

Decrease of offences against property in one year No.	4,465
Decrease of do. against persons in do. -	4,162
Decrease of various other offences in do. -	5,794
Total decrease of crime in one year -	14,421

In arson, burglary, fraud, larceny, bloodshed, bribery, perjury, &c. we see a rapid decrease, amounting altogether in one year to upwards of 14,000!

In India, offences decreased one-half in one year; in England they increased in five years at the enormous rate of upwards of a 1,000 per annum! When commencing these tables, I have shewn the number of persons sentenced to death and transportation, or imprisoned for life, by the Nizamut Adawlut: exile or incarceration sentences for seven years have thus decreased before this court:—

SENTENCES OF SEVEN YEARS' TRANSPORTATION OR IMPRISONMENT by the NIZAMUT ADAWLUT.

In 1825	number	334
1826		137
1827		65

A decrease, after one year's interval, of 269 sentences.

Another method exists for testing the efficacy of the police and of the laws, which is by looking at the returns of the higher classes of crime, whether murder or robbery with violence; I have, therefore, prepared this table to exhibit the result of the two periods of two years each, and I would fain indulge the hope that the view these tables, one and all, exhibit, will have some effect in England, by leading those who have heretofore opposed the abolition of capital punishment, to reflect seriously on the consequences of their perverseness. In the execution of the laws there ought to be no such hopes held out as those of clemency; the strictest justice is the greatest mercy, not only to the unfortunate individual but to society.

State of Crime in the Lower and Western Provinces of Bengal, at Two Periods of Two Years each.

Crimes.	Lower Provinces: No. of Sentences.		Decrease of Crime.	Western Provinces: No. of Sentences.		Decrease of Crime.	Total Decrease in Lower and Western Provinces.
	1824 and 1826.	1827 and 1828.		1824 and 1826.	1827 and 1828.		
Depredations with murder	165	96	69	460	271	189	258
Ditto with torture or wounding	283	194	89	901	512	389	478
Ditto with open violence, but without personal injury	330	221	109	83	34	49	158
Murder without depredation..	358	196	162	311	255	56	218
Homicide not amounting to murder	303	248	55	311	185	126	181
Affrays, with loss of life	86	47	39	180	118	62	101
Totals....	1,525	1,002	523	2,246	1,375	871	1,394

Under a mild and equitable system, *murders* with and without depredation decreased 576 on two years! If this argument be not adverse to the bloodthirsty Mosaic code which England has so long followed, I know not what is.*

* The number of persons charged with shooting at, stabbing, and poisoning with intent to kill, in England, have thus lamentably increased.—

In 1826	number 47	1830	number 80
1827	82	1831	104
1828	72	1832	132
Totals	number 201		number 316

WESTERN PROVINCES; the number of murders without depredation were—

In 1818 and 1820	-	number 496
1827 and 1828	-	- 255
Decrease	-	number 241

Under an eternal hanging system, would such a diminution have taken place?

Affrays with loss of life were,			Homicides.		
In 1821 and 1823	-	number 232	In 1818 and 1820	-	number 377
1827 and 1823	- - - -	118	1827 and 1828	- - -	185
Decrease	-	number 114	Decrease	-	number 192

Depredations accompanied by torture and wounding—

In 1818 and 1820	-	number 1,000
1827 and 1828	- - -	512
Decrease	-	number 488

In the Lower provinces the same offences were—			Depredations with open violence—		
In 1818 and 1820	-	number 319	In 1818 and 1820	-	number 545
1827 and 1828	- -	194	1827 and 1828	- - -	221
Decrease	-	number 125	Decrease	-	number 324

Mr. Robertson gives, in his pamphlet on the Civil Government of India, published in 1829, several tables to shew the decrease of crime.

Gang-robberies were—			Wilful murders—		
In 1807	- -	number 1,481	In 1807	- -	number 406
1824	- - - -	234	1824	- - -	30
Decrease	-	number 1,247	Decrease	-	number 376

Violent affrays—			Gang-robberies in the district of Kishnagur were—		
In 1807	- -	number 482	In 1808	- -	number 329
1824	- - - -	33	1824	- - -	10
Decrease	-	number 449	Decrease	-	number 319

Let us, however, proceed to a closer analytical comparison of crime in England and in the Lower and Western provinces of Bengal, as exhibited in the following parliamentary table:

Crime in England and Wales, Lower Bengal, and the Western Provinces. Sentenced to Death, Transportation, and Imprisonment for Life, in Six Years ending 1827; (the Population of England and Wales, 13,000,000; of Lower Bengal, 40,000,000; of the Western Provinces 20,000,000.)

Sentences.	Total Sentences and Executions from 1822 to 1827.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death . . .	6,815	168	198
Transportation or imprisonment for life	822	465	415
Executions . .	377	168	198

Sentences.	Yearly Averages.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death . . .	$1,135\frac{5}{6}$	28	33
Transportation or imprisonment for life	$120\frac{2}{6}$	$77\frac{3}{6}$	$69\frac{1}{6}$
Executions . .	$62\frac{5}{6}$	28	33

Sentences.	Yearly Averages in proportion to the Population.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death . . .	1 in 11,445	1 in 1,428,571	1 in 606,060
Transportation or imprisonment for life	1 in 108,033	1 in 516,129	1 in 289,159
Executions . .	1 in 206,897	1 in 1,428,571	1 in 606,060

While the executions in England are, in proportion to the population, one in 200,000, those in the Lower provinces of Bengal are not more than one in 1,500,000; and while all sentenced to death in India experienced the punishment awarded them, in England not the 1-18th of those sentenced to die suffered. Yet has crime augmented in the latter, and diminished in the former country.*

* In England, the condemnation to death for 21 years, from 1813 to 1833, are given as 23,700; executions, 933; giving 1,128 average annual

The number of committals in England and in Wales in six years, stand thus:—

1805	(females	1,338)	4,605	1830	(females)	2,972)	18,107
1806	(do.	1,226)	4,346	1831	(do.	3,047)	19,647
1807	(do.	1,287)	4,446	1832	(do.	3,343)	20,829
Total	(females	3,851)	13,397	Total	(females)	9,362)	58,583

Last period -	(females	9,362) -	58,583
First period -	(do.	3,851) -	13,397
Increased crime	(females	5,511) -	45,186

These returns shew the committals in England and Wales to be, in proportion to the population, one in every 696 inhabitants. Great as this amount is, it has been exceeded during the past year. In the foregoing table England and Wales are included, but the proportion of crime in Wales bears no comparison to England; in the latest returns England and Wales are separated:—

COMMITTALS for CRIME 1830.*

In England - -	1 in 740	Inhabitants.
Wales - -	1 in 2,320	ditto.
Scotland - -	1 in 1,130	ditto.
Ireland - -	1 in 490	ditto.

Crime appears to be on the increase in Scotland, for a few years ago the proportion was rated as one in 5,093. But the state of morals must not be judged of in England by the number (740), for unfortunately in many places the proportions are less inclined to virtue's side.

It has been calculated that one-fifteenth of the population of the United Kingdom subsist by prostitution; one-fifteenth by swindling, robbery, and every species of crime; and five-fifteenths are what are denominated poor, living from hand to mouth. Such have been in a great measure the effect of an

condemnations, and 44 executions; an enormous proportion when compared with those of France or Belgium. The medium executions in France, from 1825 to 1832, amounted to 67, or 1 for 477,000 souls; in England, from 1827 to 1833, to 44, or 1 for 295,000 souls; in Belgium, from 1815 to 1829, to 4½, or 1 for 680,000.

* Eclectic Review.

ensanguined code of laws, which some have had the infatuation to propose for adoption in India.* Let us compare crime in the Company's Bengal territories (the only place whence we have returns) with offences in England, in Ireland, and in France; with reference to the yearly averages, and the proportion to the population:

Averages of Sentences, and comparison with the Amount of Population, in England and Wales, in France, and in Bengal.

Sentences.	Yearly Averages.			
	England, for 4 yrs.	Ireland, for 7 yrs.	France, 1yr. (1829)	Bengal, for 4 yrs.
To death -	1,232¾	270	89	59¾
Transportation or imprisonment for life	193½	55¾	273	149¼
Do. for 7 years	279¾	81⅝	1,033	357⅝

Averages of Sentences, and comparison with the Amount of Population, in England, &c.—*continued.*

Sentences.	Proportion of Yearly Averages to Population.			
	England: Population 13,000,000.	Ireland: Population 7 to 8,000,000.	France: Population 30,000,000.	Bengal: Population 60,000,000.
To death -	1 in 10,547	1 in 25,840	1 in 237,078	1, in 1004,182
Transportation or imprisonment for life	1 in 67,173	1 in 126,289	1 in 109,890	1 in 402,010
Do. for 7 years	1 in 45,610	1 in 86,419	1 in 29,041	1 in 167,669

The following extract from the Supreme Court's Reports of Calcutta, for February, 1833, adds a further gratifying instance of the decrease of crime in India.

	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Number of offences . .	2,330	1,304	1,329	
Persons apprehended . .	3,556	1,256	2,023	
——— convicted . . .	625	675	718	
Property stolen . .	Rs. 1,36,383	1,23,714	62,981	
——— recovered . . .	4,854	33,828	6,793	

The preceding tables, as well as the facts stated in the foregoing pages, are the best criterion of the efficiency of the Company's Government, and the excellence of their criminal code; I question whether any country in Europe would present so rapid and so remarkable a diminution of crime as the Bengal tables demonstrate. It is to be regretted

* In seven years, ending with 1828, there have been in England the following executions:—93 for murder; 104 for burglary; 72 for highway robbery; 37 for horse-stealing; 31 for attempts to murder; 27 for rape, &c.; 23 for forgery; 12 for coining, and several others for various offences; the executions for crimes committed in the City of London and County of Middlesex, were in number 125. What a wanton effusion of human blood! Have any one of these crimes decreased? Not one—the very reverse; while those crimes in which death-punishments have been abolished nearly (sheep-stealing for instance), have actually decreased.

that we have not complete tables of all India, as also returns from all the British Colonies; I would therefore suggest, that extensive statistics of crime be prepared for the India-house and Colonial office, which would not only be most valuable in themselves, but also offer the best possible proof of the condition of the people subject to the authority of the E. I. Company and of the Crown.*

Before closing this Chapter, it may be advisable to glance at the *general condition of British India*, as stated by various authorities in and out of Parliament.

GENERAL CONDITION OR ASPECT OF BRITISH INDIA.

No man was better qualified from his acute powers of observation, or his extensive knowledge of other countries to form an opinion of our possessions in the East than Bishop Heber, who thus graphically dwells on this subject:—

Bishop Heber's View of the visible Improvement in Hindostan—'Southern Malwa from a mere wilderness is now a garden,' p. 74. 'During the years of trouble, Malwa (except in the neighbourhood of fortified towns and among the most inaccessible mountains) was entirely depopulated. All the villagers hereabout had emigrated chiefly into Berar, Candeish, and the Deckan: and some had become servants and camp followers to the British army, till, within the last three or four years, they returned each man to his inheritance, on hearing that they might do so with safety.' p. 98. Life of Bishop Heber.

'Every where, making due allowances for the late great droughts and consequent scarcity, amounting almost to absolute famine, with its dreadful attendant evils of pestilence and the weakening of all moral ties; the country seems to thrive under its present system of Government. The burdens of the peasantry are decidedly less in amount and collected in a less oppressive manner, than under the old monarchy. The English

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* It would be extremely desirable if the number of gaols in India and in the colonies, and the number of prisoners in each gaol, were specified, as also the mode of employing the prisoners, and the general effects of prison discipline. There can be no doubt that the public exposure of criminals in road gangs not only hardens the offender, but takes away, in a great measure the dread of punishment from those inclined to crime, as witnessed by me in New South Wales.

name is therefore popular with all, but those who are inevitably great losers by our coming—the courtiers of the Peishwa, such of the traders as lived by the splendor of his Court, and probably, though this does not appear, the Brahmins;' p. 211.

'Though our influence has not done the good which might be desired or expected in Central India, that which has been done, is really considerable. Except from the poor Bheels, and from the few gangs of marauders which still lurk in different parts of the country, that country is now at peace; and how slight are these dangers, and how easy to be borne are the oppressions of the native rajas, in comparison with the annual swarm of Pindarie horsemen, who robbed, burned, ravished, enslaved, tortured, and murdered over the whole extent of territories from the Runn to the Bay of Bengal? While their inroads are remembered, to say nothing of Jeswunt Rao, Holkar, and Ameer Khân, the coming of the English cannot but be considered as a blessing; *and I only hope, that we may not destroy the reverence and awful regard, with which our nation is still looked up to here;* vol. 2, p. 74.

'The country people seem content and thriving;' p. 114.

The Bishop and Archdeacon Corrie, (who has been in India nearly 40 years) give the following description of the country traversed during a visitation:—

Sept. 15.—'We passed Mirzapoor, the size and apparent opulence of which surprised me, as it is a place of no ancient importance or renown, has grown up completely since the English power has been established here; and under our government, is only an inferior civil station, with a few native troops. It is, however, a very great town, as large, I should think, as Patna, with many handsome native houses, and a vast number of mosques and temples, numerous and elegant bungalows in its outskirts; and on the opposite side of the river, a great number of boats of all kinds, moored at its ghâts, and is computed to contain between two and three hundred thousand people.

'This is indeed a most rich and striking land. Here, in the space of little more than two hundred miles, along the same river, I have passed six towns, none of them less populous than Chester,—two (Patna and Mirzapoor), more so than Birmingham; and one, Benares, more peopled than any city in Europe, except London or Paris! And this, besides villages innumerable. I observed to Mr. Corrie, that I had expected to find agriculture in Hindostan in a flourishing state, but the great cities ruined in consequence of the ruin of the Mussulman nobles. He answered, that certainly very many ancient families had gone to decay, but he did not think the gap had been ever perceptible in his time, in this part of India, since it had been more filled up by a new order rising from the middling

classes, whose wealth had, during his recollection, increased very greatly. Far indeed from those cities which we had already passed decaying, most of them had much increased in the number of their houses; and in what is a sure sign of wealth in India, the number and neatness of their ghâts and temples since he was last here. Nothing, he said, was plainer to him, from the multitude of little improvements of this kind, of small temples and bungalows, partly in the European style, but obviously inhabited by natives, that wealth was becoming more abundant among the middling ranks; and that such of them as are rich, are not afraid of appearing so. The great cities in the Doab, he said, were indeed scenes of desolation. The whole country round Delhi and Agra, when he first saw it, was filled with the marbled ruins of nullas, mosques and palaces, with the fragments of tanks and canals, and the vestiges of inclosures. But this ruin had occurred before the British arms had extended thus far, and while the country was under the tyranny and never ending invasions of the Persians, Affghans and Mahrattas. Even here a great improvement had taken place before he left Agra, and he hoped to find a much greater on his return. He apprehended that on the whole, all India had gained under British rule, except, perhaps, Dacca and its neighbourhood, where the manufactures had been nearly ruined; p. 314.

In another place the lamented Heber says—

'One of the strongest proofs that I have met with of the satisfaction of the Hindoos with their rulers was the mutual felicitations which the archdeacon overheard between two villagers near Cawnpore, and which was not intended for his ear. 'A good rain this for the bread' said one of the villagers to another; 'yes,' was the answer, 'and a good government under which a man may eat his bread in safety.'

But Bishop Heber is not the only testimony on which the shadows of partiality cannot be cast; Major General Sir Lionel Smith, K.C.B., an old king's officer who visited various parts of India, resided there a great number of years, and describes himself as very partial to the natives, says—

'I should say the condition of the people had been highly ameliorated by the government since the conquest.' (5532).—'Do not you think the people are better protected, and that they pay less than under the native government? *A.* Yes; the government in several bad years made remissions to them in the amount of the taxes.' (5508).

Mr. Robertson, in his interesting remarks on the civil government of India, thus alludes to the condition of the people, and the cultivation of the country—

'I have never served in the Benares province, but of Behar I can speak with confidence as being cultivated to an extent that, in many places, hardly leaves room for carriage roads. The people do not generally bear any marks of poverty.

'I have, as magistrate of Patna, often been surprised at the readiness with which fines of twenty or thirty rupees, commutable into only one month's imprisonment, have been paid by common villagers; and my own belief is, that the labouring peasantry of that province are, with reference to the climate and their wants, fully as well off as the peasantry of England, certainly beyond all comparison, in a better condition than the same class in Ireland, and in many parts of Scotland.'

Mr. Harris, an extensive indigo planter, in speaking of the condition of the peasantry during the years when they fell under his observation, from 1808 to 1822, says—'their condition was greatly improved latterly, from the time I first went there, to the time I came away; their houses were better, and their condition greatly improved,' (Lords, 4288).—'The whole country (the district of Tipperah) is cultivated like a garden, there is not a spot of ground where they could feed a bullock, scarcely,' (4279).

W. Malcolm Fleming, an Indian judge, was asked (Lords, 1141):—'Did the country improve during the time you were acquainted with it?—Very much. Both in population and in wealth?—Yes. Did it appear to you that there was more agricultural capital in the country when you left it than when you went to it?—Yes; certainly, much more. Was there more applied to the cultivation of land!—Yes. Was there more applied to manufactures or trade?—I do not think that there was; but there was a great deal more land brought into cultivation. Did the people appear to you more comfortable than when you first knew it?—Much more so.

Mr. Christian described the whole country to be improved, and, with reference to the Upper Provinces, particularly stated, that 'cultivation has extended very considerably,' (Lords, 905).

Mr. R. D. Mangles, says:—The incomes of the proprietors of land in the Lower Provinces, taken on the average, are equal to the Government revenue; all agricultural produce

has risen very considerably, and the extension of cultivation is very great, (Lords, p. 59).

Mr. Sullivan describes the 'progress of population, increase of stock, improvements in agriculture, and the creation of capital employed in different works in Coimbatoor,' (Commons, 679).

Mr. Rickards admits the 'efforts of the Government for the encouragement of agriculture,' (2,809).

Mr. Fortescue describes the 'population of the Delhi territory as rapidly increasing,' (Lords, 459); and, in another place, thus depicts the blessings which have resulted from the occupation of the country by Great Britain. Did the people appear to be satisfied with the administration of justice?—I do think they were particularly so. Has the revenue increased in that country of late years, since we first got possession of it?—Extremely; almost beyond calculation. And the population?—Yes; and the population also. When we took possession there were about 600 deserted villages; when I came away, there were about 400 of them that had been re-peopled again, chiefly by the descendants of those who had a proprietary right in those villages, and this in consequence of our administration. (March, 1830, Lords).

While on the subject of deserted villages, I cannot help directing the reader's attention to an Appendix in the late Sir John Malcolm's Central India, in which will be found detailed accounts of the villages restored, or rather recovered from the tigers and wild animals, who were their sole inmates. The total of khalsa, or Government villages re-peopled in Holkar's country, were:—In 1818, no. 269; 1819, 343; 1820, 508: leaving of villages uninhabited, but since peopled, 543.

In Dhar, the restoration of villages were:—In 1818, no. 28; 1819, 68; 1820, 52: leaving then uninhabited, 217.

In Dewas, villages restored:—In 1818, no. 35; 1819, 106: leaving then uninhabited, 141.

In the Bhopal, the restorations were:—In 1817, no. 965; 1818, 302; 1819, 249; 1820, 267: leaving untenanted, 813.

In many places not only were hundreds of villages left roof-

less, but the wretched inhabitants, when returning to them on the establishment of our sway, were devoured by the numerous tigers that overran the country. Capt. Ambrose despatched to his superior authority in 1818, a list of the people killed by these ferocious animals in one district within the year, amounting to 86! The names of the individuals and the villages they belonged to, were stated in the return; Sir John Malcolm says, an intelligent native gave the number of men killed by the tigers, in 1818, at 150; in consequence of the exertions of Government, much fewer lost their lives in 1819, and in 1820 scarcely any. In several other parts of India also, on the restoration of tranquillity, the tigers disputed with the returning peasantry for the possession of the villages. Such is the country which, within 10 or 12 years, has been reclaimed from the lair of wild beasts, and repeopled by men.

Enough has been said to shew the present state of India; a few words as to its condition under the native princes may not be amiss, although the fearful details at the conclusion of the first chapter sufficiently illustrate the unfortunate situation of its inhabitants. Colonel Briggs thus describes the state of Candeish:—

4018. Was it in a very unsettled state when you went there?—It was in a very unsettled state, and had been so for the last thirty years previous to our taking possession of the country. It had been overrun by bands of freebooters; I believe there were at different times about eighty distinct bodies, which had been in the habit of ravaging the country; this was the cause of its being very much depopulated. I think 1,100 out of, I believe, 2,700 villages, for I merely speak from recollection, were rendered *desolate altogether:* and those which remained were open to the pillages of a race of people denominated Bheels. These people are supposed by some to be the aborigines of the country; but they have been for a long period attached to villages as guardians or watchmen, with certain immunities in land and fees from the people themselves. The consequence of those ravages deprived the inhabitants of the means of supporting the Bheels, who went into the hills, and were in the habit of attacking the villages.

Of the Nagpore territories Mr. Jenkins thus speaks: 'I

had scarcely arrived at Nagpoor in 1807, before I saw the whole country in a blaze, and almost every village burning within a few miles of the city of Nagpoor, and this going on from year to year!' (Lords, 2,197).

Mr. Jenkins stated that the people were very well satisfied with the administration of justice while we had the country; their Lordships then enquired:—

2207. From your own observation, when you went there had you reason to believe that the people were satisfied with the native government?—*Far from it;* for they had little protection from foreign invasion. The Pindarees were *constantly ravaging* the country; and the Rajah's troops, if they were sent to suppress them, *plundered them;* and the zemindars *plundered the ryots* in the districts immediately near them.

Mr. Jenkins states, that during the eight or nine years that Nagpoor was under the controul of the Company, 12 or 14 additional banking-houses were established, the agricultural class to every appearance possessed more wealth, the expenditure of the Rajah was reduced, and an annual surplus of near five lacs of rupees created.

I might fill pages upon pages with testimony equally as conclusive as that of Colonel Briggs and Mr. Jenkins; I therefore pass on to notice an assertion, 'that the value of money in India has not undergone a visible change, and that as the money-prices of grain and other commodities, and the wages of labour, have undergone no change since the establishment of the British Government in India, we may conclude that the value of money has, throughout this period, been equally steady.'*

The following table has been prepared by the statistical reporter at Bombay, Colonel Sykes, and laid before the Parliamentary Committee:—

* Rickard's India, Vol. 1, p. 598.

Comparison of the Wages of Artificers and other Public Servants, under the Peishwa's and British Governments in the Dukhein, in 1828 and 1814.

	Under the British rule in 1828.	Under the Peishwa's in 1814.
	Monthly Wages.	Monthly Wages.
Head Carpenter . Rupees	25, 35, and 45	15, 20, 40
Common ditto . . .	15	12
Two Sawyers . . .	15 and 22½	8
Head Smith . . .	25 and 30	20
Smith . . .	15 and 22½	12
Head Armourer . .	30	20
File Man	15	12
Hammer Man . . .	6, 8, and 13½	7
Head Leather Worker .	15	12
Head Bricklayer . . .	25 and 35	15 and 20
Tailor	9½	6
Chief of Dooly Bearers .	15 and 20	
Groom*	8	5
Camel Man . . .	7 and 9	5
Head of Palankeen Hamals .	15	10

The Price of Grain, Pulse, and other Articles under the respective Administrations

	Under the British rule in 1828.	Under the Peishwa's in 1814.
	Seers.	Seers.
Rice (Putnee) - - per Rupee	16	12
Ditto (Ambesnor) - - - -	13	9½
Wheat - - - - - -	18	14
Joaree (Andropogon Sporzhum) - -	32	21
Bajree (Panicum spicatum) - -	28	17
Dhall (Cytisus Cajan) - - -	16	11
Ghee (clarified butter) - - -	2	1½

This table confirms the statements of the several authorities quoted as to the improved condition of the country; for if the price of food be augmented in the Dukhun (or Deckhan) and the rate of wages be simultaneously increased, there can be no stronger proof of prosperity, not only in that part of India referred to, but also in those parts which have been longer under the Government of the East India Company. Colonel Galloway, adverting to the 'increase of cultivation,

* Under the Peishwa's government, one man attended on two horses, and one man on two camels.

and the high price the husbandman now receives for the produce of his labour,' (Law and Constitution of India. p. 198) says, 'I have in many parts of the ceded and conquered provinces seen grain selling at 25 seers* per rupee, where we were credibly informed by the natives that 120 seers were often, even generally procurable for that sum.'

As regards Bengal, I made particular enquiry in 1830 on the subject; and the authority from whom I received the following statements, is Dwarkanaut Tagore, than whom no man in Bengal is better qualified to make them. The increase of wealth, throughout Bengal,† has been most rapid; notwithstanding the disadvantages under which the agriculturists labour, by the English markets being shut against their raw and manufactured produce, and the great number of artizans thrown out of employment by the introduction of piece goods, &c. from England; land purchased at Calcutta 30 years ago for 15 rupees, is now worth, and would readily sell for 300. Ten years ago a labourer in Calcutta received two rupees per month, now he is not satisfied with less than four or five rupees per month,‡ and there is even a scarcity of workmen; 12 field labourers were formerly to be had for less than one rupee a day, now half that number could not be had at that rate of wages. A cabinet-maker§ was glad to obtain eight rupees a month, for the exercise of his skill, now he readily obtains 16 or 20 rupees for the same period; I need not go through the other classes of handicraftsmen, or labourers, all have risen in a like proportion; and as to the price of food, it is sufficient to state one article as a cri-

* A seer is 2 lbs.

† Land is now worth 67 years' purchase of the revenue.

‡ Mr. Colebrook says, in 1804 in his Husbandry of Bengal, 'that a cultivator entertains a labourer for every plough, and pays him wages, on an average, one rupee per mensem, and in some districts, not half a rupee per mensem;' this was at a period when not one third of the land of a zemindarry was cultivated, whereas now there is frequently not an acre on an estate untilled.

§ The wages of a Hindoo carpenter at Calcutta may be estimated at 6*d.*, of a Chinese at 2*s.*, and of the lowest European, 6*s.* per day.

terion—rice, the staff of life in Bengal, was wont to be sold at eight annas (half a rupee) per maund (82lbs.), its price has increased four-fold, being now averaged at two rupees per maund. In fine, a new order of society has sprung into existence that was before unknown, the country being heretofore divided between the few nobles, in whose hands the wealth of the land was concentrated, and the bulk of the people, who were in a state of abject poverty; from the latter have arisen a middle rank which will form the connecting link between the Government and the mass of the nation. The advantages to be derived from this change are incalculable;—whenever such an order have been created, freedom and prosperity have followed in their train. Do we need example? Look at England, after the Norman conquest, when the people were serfs, and the feudal Barons were the very counterparts of the India zemindars; but watch the progress of society up to the eighth Henry, when wealth became more equally diffused; and continue the view to the present day when the power of the middle ranks has become so paramount, by reason of the mass of wealth and intelligence concentrated in their ranks.

The country of the foaming Guadalquiver is a melancholy illustration of a nation possessing but two ranks of society, where the most beggarly Asturian, who can support a bare existence without mental or bodily labour, claims the rank of an Hidalgo, and strongly reminds one of the lazy proud 'Suwars,' so admirably delineated by Bishop Heber, in his highly interesting work. Look at Hungary and other places, where the peasantry are sold with the soil; in fact, in every country where there have been only two extremes of society, mental and bodily despotism have supervened. The East India Company's Government have broken through that curse,—they have annihilated a feudalism which has ever marked an age of barbarism. It is true, that society has been levelled; that the slavish dependence of the low, upon the high caste, has been severed; and millions of human beings are now, for the first time, learning to know their own

worth; to be conscious that, by industry, talent, and integrity, they may elevate themselves to the foremost rank of society, and 'redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled,' the meanest Indian peasant may hurl defiance at any petty tyrant, who, from the insolence of office, alleged hereditary rights, or domineering Brahaminical priesthood, may still foolishly think to retain longer in subjection a submissive people, who had, alas! too long licked the dust of the earth.

In the language of Bishop Heber to the Supreme Government, in 1825.—'It is my earnest prayer to that good Providence, who has already made the mild and just, and stable Government of British functionaries productive of so much advantage to Hindoostan, that He would preserve and prosper an influence which has been hitherto so well employed,*

* The following is a very brief abstract of *some* of the roads and bridges constructed in India since the last renewal of the E. I. Company's Charter; the official document from which it is taken extends to ten times the length of the present statement:

BENGAL, 1812—road from Calcutta to Juggurnauth, upwards of 300 miles in length, with branches to the principal towns near which it passes.

1813—canal, between Ganges and Bugruttee rivers.

1814—military road from Calcutta to Benares, 500 miles, restored to its original width, repaired, bridges erected &c.; pucka road from Allahabad to Burdwan, 450 miles.

1815—erection of lighthouses at different places; building a bridge at Meerut; cutting a road 12 feet wide for beasts of burthen from Bumouree to Almorah, and cutting bridges.

1816—rebuilding the houses of the Botanical Garden; establishment of a native hospital at Patna; erection of a lighthouse at Kedgeree.

1817—repair of an ancient aqueduct in the Deyra Doon; restoration of the Delhi canal; ditto in Goruckpore; construction of a new road at Moochucollah; erection of telegraphs between Calcutta and Nagpore, 733 miles; construction of a road from Tondah to Bumouree; completion of the new road from Patna to Gyah.

1818—eight bridges built for the entrances on the land side of the city of Delhi; a new road from Puttah Ghaut to Hurripaul; ditto between Patna and Shehargotty.

1819—construction of a chapel at Benares; extension as far as Ruderpore of the road constructed from Bumouree to Tondah in Kumaoon, for the purpose of opening a communication between the Plains and Almorah; repairing the bridge over the Ramgunga, and constructing a new bridge over the Soorjoo rivers in Kumaoon.

1820—formation of a botanical garden at Saharunpore; road from the Barrackpore to opposite Buddee Pantee.

1821—roads from Agra to Mhow *via* Lakheree and Mokundiah; Mhow to Delhi, by Neemutch and Nusseerabad; Asseerghur to Hussingabad, then to Mhow *via* Mundlasir, and to Nagpore *via* Berhampore and Ellich-

that He would eventually make our nation the dispenser of still greater blessings to our Asiatic brethren, and in his own

poor; Cawnpore to Saugor through Bundlecund, and thence to Nagpore by two routs, viz. by Jubblepore and by Hussingabad; Calcutta to Nagpore, through the Singboom country.

1822—canal to unite the Hooghly with the Ganges, through the salt-water Lake; survey and improvement of the port of Cuttack; a line of telegraphs from Fort William to Chunar; road from Chilkeah to Howel Baugh in Kumaoon, for facilitating the commerce between Tartary and the Plains.

1823—a canal to unite the Damrah and Churramunnee; re-opening of Feroze Shah's canal in Delhi, completed; restoration of Zabita Khan's canal in the Upper Dooab; the course of all Murdher's canal, drawn into Delhi; erection of a splendid new mint at Calcutta, in progress.

1824—road between Nagpore and Ryepore; erection of a chapel at Dum Dum, another at Meerut, two churches at Cawnpore, a church at Dacca, an additional church at Calcutta, and a church at Burdwan; a new road from Mirzapore to Saugor, Jubbulpore, Nagpore, and Omrawatty to Bhopalpore, Mhow, &c.

1825—establishment of a botanical garden at Singapore; erection of bungalows and seraies for travellers in the military road from Calcutta to Benares; road from Cuttack to Padamoondy or Aliva.

1826—a new dawk road between Calcutta and the new anchorage.

1827—four Shakesperian bridges.

1828—removing rocks in the Jumna; nine iron chain bridges over the rivers in Kumaoon.

1829—roads in the districts of Jounsai and Bhowar; a road from Balasore to the sea beach.

1830—a new road from Cuttack to Ganjam; Jynta road ditto; *via* Hooghly and Burdwan to Bancoorah; staging bungalows and seraies at Gopeegunge, Allahabad, &c. &c.; seven telegraphic towers on the semaphore principle from Kedgeree to Calcutta

1831—assisting the "Strand Road" at Calcutta.

MADRAS, 1815—new street on the beach; St. George's church; bridge over the Mambaroota river.

1816—bridge over the Paramboor, and a new road between the Black Town and the N. W. approaches to Madras.

1817—formation of wells; chapel at Arcot, and one at Poonamalee.

1818—stone bridge across the Madras river; a new observatory.

1819—a road in the Neilgherry Hills; repairs to the bridges across the Cauvery.

1820—rebuilding of the lighthouse at Madras.

1821—building a church for the Missionary Society; erection of a chapel at St. Thomas's Mount, and of a church at Vepery; a stone bulwark at Fort St. George against the inroads of the sea.

1822—erection of bridges at the island of Samoodra, in Coimbatoor; Scotch Church (St. Andrew's.)

1823—a new cut for the Votary nullah; a new bridge, &c.

1824—a canal at Chumnapore; a church at Tellicherry; great road from Secunderabad to Masulipatam; great road from Madras through the Northern Circars, to the Bengal frontier.

1825— a tunnel from Fort St. George to the sea.

good time, and by such gentle and peaceable means as only are well pleasing in His sight, unite to us in community of faith, of morals, of science, and political institutions, the brave, the mild, the civilized, and highly intelligent race, who only in the above respects can be said to fall short of Britons.'

1826—several bridges and roads in various places.
1827—ditto ditto, all mentioned in the returns.
1828—ditto ditto, the names may be seen in the official document.
1829—military road through Coorg, and other works.
1830—a new cut across the Kendalseroo river in Nellore, &c. &c.

BOMBAY, 1814—new road from Bancoote to Mundgaum; repair of the docks, and the completion of the slope in the dock-yard; a church at Surat.
1815—from Bandorah to Gorabunder.
1816—a Scotch church; a chapel at Colabba.
1817—a tank at Bohur; chapel at Tannah; new mint.
1821—aqueduct; the flats of Bombay drained; church in the N. Concan.
1821—chapel at Poonah; tank in Salsette.
1822—new wharf at Bombay.
1824—town hall undertaken.
1825—military road from S. Mahratta country to coast; church at Dapooree; also churches in the east zillah north of the Myhee, and at Baroda and a Roman Catholic chapel at Colabba; road from Nassick to Bhewndy.
1826—improvement of Sion causeway; bridge over the Moolla; a new observatory, and a church at Mhow.
1827—improvement of the Bhore Ghaut; a church at Kirkhee; road from Malligaum to Surat.
1828—bungalows at Malabar Point, and botanical garden at Dapooree.
1831—subscription for a church at Byculla.
[Various other works, since undertaken or completed, not included in the foregoing return.]

The line of road proposed, in 1831, by Lord W. Bentinck, then to be constructed or repaired, or which were in progress, were—1st, the main road from Calcutta to Delhi, extending 908 miles (passing through Benares, Allahabad, Cawnpore, and Coel); 2nd, the completion of the road from Mirzapore to Jubulpore (opening a communication with central India), 239 miles; 3rd, the completion of the Cuttack road (the line between Calcutta and Madras Presidency), 248 miles; 4th, the Calcutta and Moorshedabad road, 107 miles; 5th, the Patna branch road, 83 miles; and, 6th, a road from Calcutta to Dacca (opening a communication with the E. frontier), 199 miles;—total 1,784 miles. The number of prisoners at work on these roads in January, 1834, was 10,000. It is proposed also to open a road of 450 miles from Mirzapore on the Ganges, through Jubbulpore towards Bombay, as far as Amroutee, the great cotton mart of central India. Cross roads are forming in different directions.

For Montgomery Martin's History of the British Colonies Vol.I. Possessions in Asia.

J. & C. Walker. Sculp.t

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CHAPTER VIII.

CEYLON, ITS AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE, AND NATURAL PRODUCTIONS; EARLY HISTORY—EUROPEAN CONQUEST AND BRITISH SETTLEMENT—POPULATION MALE AND FEMALE, WHITE, FREE, BLACK, AND SLAVES, IN EACH DISTRICT—CLASSIFICATION—BOODHIST RELIGION—CIVIL GOVERNMENT—JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENTS—MILITARY FORCE—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE; GOVERNMENT AND MISSIONARY SCHOOLS—INTERNAL AND MARITIME COMMERCE—SAILING DIRECTIONS—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL ASPECT, IN A MILITARY AND NAUTICAL VIEW, AND ADVANTAGES TO GREAT BRITAIN.

CEYLON (*Selan, Singhala, Lanka, Serendib,* or *Taprobane*), situate between the parallels of 5.56. to 9.50. N. lat., and from 80. to 82. E. long., is one of the most magnificent islands on the face of the globe; in shape it somewhat resembles an egg; the extreme length is about 270 miles from N. to S., with an *extreme* breadth of 145 miles (an *average* of 100), a circuit of 750 miles, and a superficial area of about 24,664 square miles.

Favourably situate at the W. entrance of the Bay of Bengal, it is separated on the N.W. from the Coromandel coast, by the Gulf of Manaar, in breadth 62 miles, and 150 miles distant from Cape Comorin; on the S. and E. its beautiful shores are laved by the Indian Ocean. The interior of the island is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general, not approaching nearer to the sea than 40 miles, with a belt of rich alluvial earth, nearly surrounding the island, and well watered by numerous rivers and streams. A picturesque table land occupies the southern centre, and thence, towards the coast is a continuous range of low hills, and elevated flat land extending nearly to the sea-shore. To the W. the country is flat, and on the northern shore, broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula named Jafnapatam. The lofty central division of the island varies in elevation above the

level of the sea, from 1,000 to 6,000 feet, but the range of table land may be estimated at from 2,000 to 3,000 feet higher above the sea. The mountains* run in general in continuous chains with the most lovely vallies the sun ever shone on between them; the hills clothed to the very summits with gigantic forests, from which issue magnificent cascades and foaming cataracts, that form in the vallies placid rivers and babbling brooks fringed with turfy banks, and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics.

Rivers.—The rivers, as may be expected, are numerous, in fact, the whole island abounds with perennial mountain streams, rivulets, and rivers, the latter more numerous on the S. and W. than on the N.E. The principal are—the Maha-Villa-Gunga, which is navigable for boats, and rafts during a great part of the year, from Trincomalee (where it falls into the sea), nearly as far as Kandy (in the centre of the island), where its course is impeded by a ledge of rocks; the Calany Gunga, or Mutwal, is not inferior in importance to the former, and is the medium for much internal intercourse for 50 miles from Columbo to Ruanwelle: the Welawe and Gindora, &c., all of which serve rather the purposes of irrigation than navigation. There is, however, an inland river navigation over 100 miles of picturesque country from Chilaw to Putlam 30 miles N. of Caltura.

Lakes.—There are a few lagunes on the table land, the principal advantage of which is, the abundant supplies of fish which they afford, and in irrigating the rice lands. In

* Heights above the sea, in English feet, of some of the principal Mountains, &c. in the interior of Ceylon (L by levelling; Δ by geodesical operations):—Upper Lake in Kandé, 1678, L.; Matteá Pattanna, the hill above it, 3192 Δ; Oorraggalle, the rocky ridge of Hantanné to the southward of the town, 4310, Δ; Hoonassgiria Peak, 4990, Δ; 'The Knuckles', a part of the same chain, 5870, Δ; Highest point in the road leading through the Kaddooganawa Pass, 1731, L.; Adam's Peak, 7420, Δ; Nammoonnakoolle, near Baddoolla, 6740, Δ; Amboolluawa, near Gampalla, 3540, Δ; Pedrotallagalla, close to the Rest House of Nuwera Ellia, 8280, Δ; Diatalawé, near Hangooranketté, 5030, Δ; Alloogalle, near Amoonapoorré, 3440, Δ.

the maritime provinces, particularly in Batticaloa, the communication between one district and another is maintained by canals connecting extensive salt water lakes, which have embankments of a stupendous nature, constructed by the Cingalese three centuries before the Christian era. Small vessels from India may land their cargoes at Calpentyn in the Gulf of Manaar, and have them conveyed by canal to Columbo.

GEOLOGY.—The island would seem to have been at no very distant period connected with the peninsula of Hindostan, from which it was probably separated by an irruption of the ocean.* Uniformity of formation characterises Ceylon, the whole of the island, with few exceptions, consisting of primitive formations, the varieties of which are extremely numerous; the most prevailing species is granite or gneiss; the more limited are quartz, hornblende, dolomite, and a few others. The varieties of granite and gneiss are innumerable,

* The ridge called, 'Adam's Bridge,' consists of a mass of loose sand, with no firm foundation of rock or clay to support it. The sand appears to be transported in great quantities from one side to the other of the ridge, according to the direction of the monsoon; for, in addition to the action of the surf, which washes it over to the lee side, where it is narrow,—in other parts, where it is broad, streams of it, in a dry state, are carried across by the wind itself, and deposited there. The channels through the strait are very shallow, and not more than sufficient for the small country boats to pass; but it is stated, in the records of the Dutch government at Ceylon, that a Dutch fleet once passed through the channels of Adam's Bridge to avoid a Danish fleet in chase of them. It has been justly observed, that if such really were the case, the channels must have been in a very different state, as some parts of the 'bridge' are now dry, and a few feet of water is the greatest depth any where on it.

The principal channel now used by the Dhonies, and other small country boats, lies on the western side of the strait, on which channel some curious dams appear to have been formed by the action of the sea on the soft sandstone. According to the records of the Pagoda of Ramisseram, it appears that this island was, about the close of the fifteenth century, connected with the Peninsula, at which time, it is recorded, that pilgrims passed over it on their way to the Pagoda.

It is proposed to deepen the principal channel, which probably might be accomplished for a moderate sum, so as to make it available not only for the coasting trade, but for large vessels, by which a great deal of time would be saved.

passing often from one into another, occasionally changing their character altogether and assuming appearances for which, in small masses, it would be extremely difficult to find appropriate names. Regular granite is not of very common occurrence; well formed gneiss is more abundant, but sienite is not common: pure hornblende, and primitive greenstone, are far from uncommon; and dolomite sometimes of a pure snow white, well adapted for the statuary occasionally constitutes low hills in the interior: limestone is principally confined to the northerly province of Jafnapatam, and the island appears to be surrounded by an interrupted chain, or belt of sandstone, interspersed with coral.

Soil.—The N. division of the island is sandy and calcareous, resting upon madrepore,* as it is little elevated above the level of the sea; the surface of the elevated lands of Saffragam, and Lower Ouva, is much stronger and well adapted for tillage; the granitic soil of the interior produces the most luxuriant crops wherever there are a sufficiency of hands to call forth the gifts of industry. The soil of the southern plains is sandy, resting on a strong red marl termed '*Cabook*,' the base of which is granite, and in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the lands are low and subject to inundations from the Mutwal River.

The foundations of the island are apparently calcareous, yet the greater proportion of its soil is siliceous, in many places (as in the cinnamon gardens near Columbo), the surface being as white as snow, and formed of pure quartz sand. The soils of Ceylon are stated to be in general derived from

* The coral of the Pamban banks is not the zoophite of the Mediterranean and the South Seas, but a light, porous, crumbling substance, sometimes cut and shaped into bricks by the Dutch; and more frequently burnt into lime. Of this species of lime the late fort of Negapatam was built; and so great is the hardness which it acquires by long exposure to the weather, that when Major De Haviland, some years ago, requested a specimen of the masonry of the fort to be procured and sent up to him, the iron crows and other instruments used in detaching the blocks, were blunted and bent in all directions by the solidity of the chunam, which is far more adhesive than that obtained from shells. A stone capable of being converted into so valuable a cement would almost pay the expense of its excavation.

the decomposition of gneis, granite, or clay, ironstone, the principal ingredient being quartz in the form of sand or gravel, decomposed felspar in the state of clay combined with different proportions of the oxide of iron, quartz in most instances being the predominating substance, and in many places, forming nine-tenths of the whole, the natural soils seldom containing more than three per cent. vegetable matter. The most productive earths are a brown loam resulting from the decomposition of gneis, or granite, exceeding in felspar, or a reddish loam originating from the decomposition of clay ironstone: the worst soils are those where quartz predominate, proceeding from the disintegration of quartz rock, or of granite and gneis, containing a very large proportion of quartz.

CLIMATE.—Ceylon is under the complete influence of the monsoons, the N.E. prevailing from November to February, and the S.W. from April to September; the intervening or equinoctial months having variable winds or calms. The eastern side of the island is hot and dry like the Coromandel coast, occasioned by the N.E. monsoon; the opposite division of the isle is temperate and humid like the southern Malabar shore under the influence of the S.W. monsoon; the climate, however, of the southern coast is more congenial to Europeans than perhaps any part of the continent of India. On the whole the N. and N.E. may be said to be dry, and the S.W. moist. The S.W. wind is more general all over the island, as both at Columbo and Trincomalee it blows for five months in succession, whereas the N.E. blows at Columbo only in the months of December and January, seldom beyond them. Among the mountains of the interior, the winds are modified by local circumstances, according to their proximity to the E. or W. coast: and the highest and most central land have peculiarities of their own. Thus, at Badulla, in Upper Ouva (where there is an excellent hospital and military station), the wind for three-fourths of the year is from the N.E., and in June, July, and August variable.

Owing to its intertropical position the quantity of rain that

falls in Ceylon is very great, probably about three times that of England. Being less frequent, the showers are much heavier while they last, a fall of two or three inches being not uncommon in 24 hours; the average of the alpine region is about 84 inches; on an average, however, less rain falls on the E. than on the W. side of the island; a lofty mountainous ridge often acting as a line of demarcation, one side of which is drenched with rain, while the other is broiling under an unclouded sun. Colonel Colebrook, in his valuable report on this lovely island, justly remarks that, the climate and seasons of the N. and S. districts are strikingly contrasted. On one side of the island, and even on one side of a mountain the rain may fall in torrents, while on the other, the earth is parched and the herbage withered; the inhabitants may be securing themselves from inundations, while in another they are carefully husbanding the little water of a former season which may be retained in their wells and tanks. Thus, throughout the southern division, where the rains are copious (owing, probably, to its exposure to the Southern Ocean) canals are not less useful in draining the lowlands, than in the conveyance of produce; and embankments are much required to secure the crops from destruction during the rainy season; while in the N. division of the island, tanks and water-courses are in the greatest request, to secure the inhabitants against the frequent droughts to which those districts are liable.

Owing, also, to its insular position, no climate is more favoured than Ceylon, its temperature being moderate when compared with the scorching plains of India. Along the sea-coast the mean annual temperature may be taken at 80. Farenheit; the extreme range line from 68. to 90., and the medium from 75. to 85. The climate of the mountains is of course cooler, but its vicissitudes greater. At Kandy, which is 1,467 feet above the sea, the mean annual temperature is 78.; at the top of Mamini Cooli Kandi 5,900 feet high, Dr. Davy found the temperature at eight A.M. 57. At Columbo (the capital) the mean daily variation of the temperature does not exceed 3., while the annual range of the thermometer is from 76. to 86½. F. At Galle the mean daily variation is 4,, and the annual range 71. to 87. Jaffnapatam, mean daily variation 5., annual range 70. to 90. Trincomalee, *greatest* daily variation 17., annual range 74. to 91. At Kandy (the capital of the mountain, or table land in the interior), mean daily variation 6., annual range 66. to 86. At Newera Ellia, a military convalescent station, mean daily variations as high as 11., and annual variation from 35. to 80.

CEYLON METEOROLOGY.

	COLOMBO (SEA SHORE) REGISTER.									BADULLA (2,107 feet above the sea).†					
	THERMOMETER.					BAROMETER.		Wind.	Rain* Guage, inches.	THERMOMETER.					Remarks by a Kandyan Chief, the result of 60 Years' Observation.
	Mean, Morning.	Mean, Mid-day.	Mean, Night.	Highest.	Lowest.	Maximum.	Minimum.			8 A. M.	Noon.	8 P. M.	Highest.	Lowest.	
January ..	78	81	79	82½	76	29.85	29.80	N.	1.0	62	72	66	74	55	Heavy rains, and very cold nights.
February ..	79	83	81½	85	76	30.	29.85	N. to N.E. and S.W.	0.4	63	74	68	77	55	No rain; hot.
March ..	80	84	82	85	77	29.90	29.80		8.1	62	76	67	80	50	A little rain, and warm.
April	81	84	82	86½	80	29.87	29.85		11.7	66	78	70	80	65	No rain; very warm.
May	82	85	82	86	79	29.93	29.80	S.W.	6.6	68	78	71	83	64	Light rain; windy.
June ..	81	83	82	86	79	29.88	29.	Ditto.	2.3	64	77	72	80	65	No rain; hot and dry.
July	80	83	81	84	79	29.98	29.	Ditto.	10.7	63	74	71	81	60	Ditto; very hot.
August ..	81	83	82	83	80	29.90	..	Ditto.	3.5	66	79	71	83	60	Ditto; hot.
September ..	82	83	82	85	81	29.90	29.80	Ditto.	8.2	66	79	72	82	62	Ditto; ditto.
October ..	80	83	81	83	78	29.90	29.80	Ditto.	7.1	66	79	72	83	62	Heavy rains, and cool.
November ..	80	82	81	83	79	30.	29.90	S.W. to N. and N.E.	7.1	67	75	71	83	62	Ditto, ditto.
December ..	80	82	80	84	78	29.90	29.80		18.6	67½	73	71	75	62	Hot and dry; very cold nights.

* The Rain Guage, shewing a total of 84.3 inches, is for Kandy (in 1819), in the interior, which shews the average of the mountain districts; on the sea-shore, as at Colombo, the average annual fall of rain is from 75 to 80 inches.

† Badulla is situate on a plain, surrounded by hills from 1 to 3,000 feet, in a mountainous country, in the S. extremity of Ceylon, having the sea at 40 to 50 miles distant on the E. S. and W. sides; the elevation above the ocean level of 2,107 feet.

The climate of Ceylon, where the soil is not cleared, is undoubtedly subject to pernicious miasmata, arising from stagnant marshes, and dank and noisome jungles, and even when the jungles are cleared, it requires the sun to act on them for some time before the unhealthy miasmata are dissipated; at certain seasons, therefore, endemic fevers appear in situations favourable to their propagation, but the whole island is becoming more uniformly salubrious as it becomes cleared, and cultivated. The environs of Trincomalee, which were formerly very unhealthy have become much less so by clearing the jungles in the environs, and if the salt-water lake ('Snake Island' I think it is termed) to the northward of Columbo were cleared, the maritime capital of Ceylon, though within 8. of the equator, would be one of the healthiest and pleasantest residences in India.

It is true that our troops have suffered much in Ceylon, but it should be recollected, that as compared with the Indian army, their wear and tear of duty is much more severe than the latter, and they have not the facilities of water communication which the Ganges and its tributaries afford; the one country is in many parts quite unpeopled, and the other comparatively civilized; add to which a pernicious system prevails in Ceylon, of making the troops commence marches at midnight, than which, nothing can be more injurious. A late intelligent Deputy Inspector General of the hospitals in Ceylon (H. Marshall, Esq.) has drawn up the following comparative table of the health and mortality of troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius, but it must be remembered, in the first place, that the data for Ceylon were made some time ago, since which period the country is materially improved, and in order to judge more correctly, we should know the ages of the deceased and invalided, and the tropical servitude endured. I give, however, the table, in the hope that it may induce further inquiry based on more extensive facts; there are no class of persons better qualified for topographical details than the medical officers of the British army, who

have contributed so much to extend the literature and science of England throughout her colonies.

Health of Troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius.

Stations.	Period. From	Period. To	Total No. Years.	Strength.	An. mean No. of Deaths.	Mean ratio of Deaths.	An. mean No. of Men invalided.	Mean ratio of Men invalided.	Total loss by Death and Invaliding.
INDIA:									
Bengal Army . . .	1825	1826	1	7,976	774	9·7	379	4·7	14·5
Madras Army . . .	1808	1809	2	8,717	713	8·1			
Ditto ditto . . .	1815	1821	7	12,502	794	6·3	486	3·7	10·1
17th Dragoons . . .	1809	1822	14	730	57	7·8			
Royal Regiment, 2d battalion .	1807	1831	24	1,087	92	7·6	37	3·1	10·8
13th Regiment* . . .	1823	1829	7	764	133	19·6			
34th ditto . . .	1803	1823	20	895	69	7·7			
45th ditto . . .	1819	1830	12	738	63	8·5	22	3·	11·5
59th ditto . . .	1806	1818	13	901	69	7·8	21	2·3	10·
65th ditto . . .	1801	1822	22	971	64	6·5	18	1·8	8·4
69th ditto . . .	1805	1820	15	844	68	8·5			
78th ditto . . .	1797	1815	19	846	96	11·3			
CEYLON:									
19th Regiment . . .	1796	1819	24	837	62	7·4	24	2·8	10·2
73d ditto† . . .	1818	1820	3	654	184	28·1	35	5·3	33·4
83d ditto . . .	1818	1820	3	871	78	8·9	55	6·3	15·2
MAURITIUS:									
82d Regiment . . .	1820	1831	12	534	20	3·7	24	4·5	8·2

When Ceylon is cleared and cultivated all over, as our West India Islands are, it will be as healthy as England. I have known Europeans and the descendants of Europeans, in Columbo, nearly 100 years of age, without scarcely ever suffering pain or sickness. Fogs and mists are rare, except in some of the deep densely foliaged vallies of the interior, and all round the sea-coast there is an unvarying alternation of sea and land breezes, twice in the 24 hours, which are felt nearly across the island in every direction.

A delightful station has been formed at Newera Ellia, S.W. from Kandy 50 miles, 14 from Fort M'Donald, 15 from Maturatte, and 122 from Columbo. The road between Newera Ellia and Kandy leads through a wild and mountainous

* This gallant regiment suffered much during the Burmese war, and the disproportionate mortality was owing to the unhealthiness of Rangoon, &c.

† The mortality of this regiment was owing to its great fatigue and exposure during the Kandyan war, and subsequent rebellion in the mountain and jungly districts.

country, the scenery always picturesque, sometimes magnificent in the extreme; at one time, the traveller is surrounded by steep and inaccessible mountains, whose sides are clothed with dense forests; rocks of an enormous size, deep and precipitate ravines, and cataracts rushing with foaming velocity from the heights, diversify the scene. The height of Newera Ellia plain (four miles long, and one and a half broad) is nearly 6,000 feet above the sea, and it is surrounded by steep mountains of irregular height (covered with wood to the very summit), one in particular—rising almost 2,000 feet above the level of Newera Ellia River, which meanders through lovely banks across the plain. The climate is delicious, never approaching tropical heat in summer, and yielding ice in winter; the mean temperature, by day and night, for the entire year 55. F. The water is so pure as to form a transparent solution with nitrate of silver; several chalybeate springs have been met with. The daisy, buttercup, violet, ribwort, dandelion, barbery, briar, &c. flourish indigenously; the rose, pink, mignionette, and carnation, are as fragrant as in England; delicious strawberries are abundant; and potatoes, carrots, artichokes, peas, beans, salads, cabbages, turnips, parsnips, and in fact every British culinary vegetable thrive luxuriantly. The soil (in which limestone has been found) is of a deep black mould, resting on a stratum of yellow clay and gravel, numerous varieties of beautiful quartz exist, and the frequenters of the climate within a few degrees of the equator, will learn, with astonishment, that a fire is *always* enjoyed by *night*, and *frequently* in the *day*.

Vegetable Productions.—No island on the face of the earth is richer in vegetable productions, than is this famed isle of palm and spices; I need scarcely allude to *cinnamon*, of which, it may be said, to have a monopoly, as China has of tea. This delightful spice grows wild as well as cultivated, in every southern part of the island, whether in the white quartz soil of the gardens on the sea-shore at Columbo, or in the red Cabook hills of Kandy, wherever in fact, there is sufficient moisture.

The *laurus cinnamonum*, although cultivated in many tropical places, has its principal habitation at Ceylon, which is capable of yielding a sufficient supply for every country in Europe; the tree whence the cinnamon bark is derived grows to the heighth of from 15 to 20 feet, with an irregular and knotty stem, branchy and ligneous roots, fibrous and inodorous wood, *external* bark, rough, thick, scabrous, and of an ash colour, inner bark reddish, (the young shoots are often delicately speckled with dark green and light orange colours); branches umbrageous inclining horizontally and downwards; leaves oblong and in pairs, from six to nine inches in length and three broad, petiolated, colour dark green; flowers clustered on one peduncle, white, wanting calyx, smell resembling a mixture of rose and lilac; fruit an oval berry, larger than a black currant, receptacle thick, green and hexangular. The roots have the pungent smell of camphor, and the delicious odour of cinnamon, yielding camphor by distillation, the leaves have the pungent taste of cloves; the berries, by boiling, yield an unctuous substance like wax, emitting an agreeable odour, and formerly used as candles for the exclusive use of the Kandian Court. Cattle of every kind eagerly feed on the luxuriant foliage, while pigeons, crows, and other birds, devour the berries with avidity. To the industry of man belongs the bark, the varieties of which are dependent on the nature of the soil, on the skill in cultivating and peeling, and on the age and healthiness of the plant. About 2,000 acres of land are laid out in regular cinnamon plantations in Ceylon, and about 30,000 persons employed thereon. The *peeling* of the bark begins with May and ends with October: the peelers (chalias, a distinct caste in Ceylon) commence the process by striking a sharp bill-hook into a shoot which seems fit for peeling; if on opening the gash the bark separates gently, it is fit for decortication; if otherwise, the shoot is unhealthy, the gash is carefully closed, and the sucker left for future examination; shoots thus found fit (generally from three to five feet long, and three-quarters of an inch in diameter) are then cut down, conveyed to sheds, and there cleared of leaves and twigs; by means of two longitudinal slits the bark peels off in two semi-circular slips; when a sufficient number are collected, the sections are placed in close contact (as two quill-halves would be laid one within the other) and the whole bundle is firmly pressed and bound up together for twenty-four hours, until a degree of fermentation is produced, which facilitates the removal of the cuticle; subsequently the interior side of each section of bark is placed upon a convex piece of wood fitted to its size, and the epidermis, together with the green succulent matter carefully scraped off (if any of the outer pulpy substance be allowed to remain, the cinnamon has an unpleasant bitterness); a few hours after the removal of the cuticle, the pieces are again placed in each other, and the bark in drying gradually contracts and rolls itself into a quill-like form. During the first day it is placed under shelter on open platforms, subse-

quently it is finally dried in the sun, and made up into bundles of about 30 pounds weight. A plantation requires seven or eight years' growth before yielding produce, the tree is least advantageously propagated by seeds,—layers and shoots, or transplanted stumps, are the best means of extending the growth. The following are the quantities of cinnamon recently imported, exported, and consumed in England :—

	Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.		Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.
1827, lbs.	267,444	359,692	14,451	1832, lbs.	36,762	524,277	15,271
1828, ..	337,483	354,536	15,696	1833, ..	102,402	447,855	11,073
1829, ..	544,225	386,108	29,720	1834, ..	221,222	222,493	11,686
1830, ..	464,175	535,223	Nil.	1835,			
1831, ..	225,869	504,643	23,172	1836,			

The duty on importation is 6d. per lb.

From Columbo to Tangalle, a distance of 100 miles along the sea-shore, plantations of cinnamon amidst groves of cocoa nut trees, skirt the whole coast for 10 miles from the bordering of the tide, which laves the very roots of those graceful and indispensable palms, the cocoa nut, being in reality the most valuable product of the island;* I recollect hearing in Ceylon an enumeration of 99 distinct articles made from this tree, among the principal were :—1. *Arrack* (the spirit under this name, made from the cocoa nut blossom, is far superior to the Batavian arrack, made from rice) which is distilled from the sweet juice of the incised flower-stock, termed—2. '*Toddy*,' in itself a delicious wholesome beverage, when drank fresh drawn before the morning sun has caused fermentation to commence. 3. *Jaghery*, a coarse, strong grained, but peculiar flavoured sugar (well adapted for crystalization, or refining in England), made in abundance from toddy. 4. *Vinegar* equal to any made from white wine, also prepared from the toddy, and used in making exquisite 5. *pickles* from the young shoots. 6. *Coir*, or ropes, strong and elastic, and having the peculiar property of being best preserved for use in sea-water (hence their adaption for mooring, and other purposes, to which they are now applied in Mauritius harbour and elsewhere, as also for running rigging in the India shipping). 7. Brushes and brooms, of

* See *Commerce*. In 1813 it was calculated that there grew along the coast between Dondrahead and Calpentyn (184 miles), ten million cocoa nut trees.

various descriptions. 8. Matting of excellent quality. 9. Rafters for houses. 10. Oil of much value, and now used in England for candles as well as lamps. 11. Gutters or water-spouts, or conveyances, for which the hollow stem or trunk is so well adapted. 12. Thatching for the peasants' cottages, the shady broad leaf being admirably suited for the purpose. 13. Alkaline ashes from the burnt leaves, and used by washermen. 14. The roots are sometimes masticated in place of areca nut. 15. Baskets of the young shoots. 16. Drums of the crust of the trunk. 17. Reticulated cloth cradles or couches for infants. 18. The terminal buds, used instead of cabbage. 19. Translucent lanterns of the young leaves. 20. Tablets for writing upon with an iron stylus or pen (after the Roman manner), from the leaflets. 21. An Æolian harp of the stripes of the leaf. 22. Stuffing (*coir*), in place of hair, for couch cushions, mattresses, saddles, &c. To particularise further, would, however, be tedious, suffice it to say, that the natives of the Maldive islands send an annual embassy to Ceylon, the boats conveying whom are entirely prepared from this tree, the persons composing the embassy, clothed and fed on its products, and the numerous presents for the Governor of Ceylon, are all manufactured from this queen of the palms.

From Tangalle to Chilaw, a distance of 135 miles, it is nearly one continued grove of cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, and jack fruit trees (the latter being scarcely inferior in importance to the natives as an article of food, &c. than the cocoa-nut). Cotton grows with the greatest facility, whether Nankin, Bourbon, or Brazil, the buds are ripe within four months after the seed is put in the ground, and the interior, particularly about Taldeina, contains immense supplies of the gigantic cotton tree, whose silky pods when bursting cover the earth around with their beautiful glossy filaments, which our manufacturers in Manchester would be so glad to obtain.

Every village, or hut, has its patch of sugar-cane and tobacco; the latter, in many parts of the island, has a delicious aroma. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and even without care, of an excellent quality; when properly attended to it is con-

sidered by many superior to Mocha.* The pepper-vine grows nearly in a state of wildness all over the island. Cardamom plants are equally plentiful. The much sought after areca-nut is of the finest species, and unsurpassed, nay, even unequalled in any part of the East. The rice of Ceylon has a richness of flavour I have never found in any other country. Teak forests abound; and excellent masts and yards, of the largest size, are everywhere procurable. Calamander, ebony, satin, rose, sappan, iron, jack, &c., and every species of the most beautiful cabinet-making woods are in rich profusion (see the Ceylon cabinet desks, dressing-cases, &c., so much and so justly admired in England). Enchanting groves of the Palmyra palms surround the villages in the northward of the island, and like the cocoa palms in the S., are of the greatest value to the peasantry in seasons of drought. The following shews the

Nature of Crop and Number of Acres in each Crop.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Indian Corn.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crop.	No. of Acres of Uncultivated Land.
1828	189,476	44,424	2,701	105	4	289	13		205	5,667	83248	243,309	1,768,661
1829	165,350	49,772	3,280	95	3	441	133	296	396	7,405	84422	311,301	1,694,048
1830	195,497	122,748	9,202	985	6	386	800	1,119	916	7,914	77705	416,982	1,825,264
1831	158,649	120,008	10,952	1,250	9	320	911	1,040	764	10,421	75887	381,059	1,645,594
1832	161,238	88,131	12,172	1,349	6	1448	913	1,197	1184	10,771	115315	394,829	2,130,322
1833	212,126	102,069	13,616	3,057	20	3025	512	1,232	1230	6,704	111430	456,206	1,674,136
1834													

Nature and Quantity of Produce Raised.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Maize.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
	bushels.	bushels.	bush.	bush.	bush	bush.	bush.	bush.	lbs.	lbs.
1828	6,042,678	576,319	4,669	200	15	5,409	17,726	..	35,715	..
1829	5,163,991	494,721	3,225	192	22	5,208	17,020	..	24,746	..
1830	5,831,187	670,122	28,938	1,531	297	5,984	104,816	2,574	60,798	..
1831	5,299,695	657,710	32,756	2,658	548	5,325	102,037	2,834	73,615	2,052,516
1832	14,590,602	769,116	61,110	5,437	1,068	16,292	96,100	2,647	234,592	1,144,140
1833	3,976,540	804,937	88,378	6,273	923	26,947	34,477	24,278	1,336,547	3,624,684
1834										

* The importation of Ceylon coffee into the united kingdom in 1832, was 2,824,998 lbs. notwithstanding a tax of 9*d.* per lb. being levied on it in England. Next year, however, the duty will be 6*d.*

Average Prices of each Description of Produce.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Maize.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bush.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per lb.	per lb.
1828	9*d.*	1*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* 2*d.*	8*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.*	2*s.*	1*s.* 3*d.*	..	4*d.*	1*d.*
1829	1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.*	3*s.* 6*d.*	5*s.*	1*s.*	3*s.*	1*s.*	..	5½*d.*	3*d.* to 6*d.*
1830	1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.*	4*s.*	6*s.*	1*s.*	3*s.* 9*d.*	1*s.*	1*s.* 10*d.*	6*d.*	
1831	10*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*	6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* to 7*s.* 4*d.*	4*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*	9*d.*	1*s.* 9*d.* to 2*s.* 3*d.*	3*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*	1*d.* to 4½*d.*	3*d.* to 6*d.*
1832	8½*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*	4½*d.* to 3*s.* 7*d.*	5*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* 4*d.*	4*d.* to 25*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* to 8*s.* 4*d.*	9*d.* to 4½*d.*	6*d.* to 1*s.* 11*d.*	2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*	1½*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	1½*d.* to 2*s.* 1*d.*
1833	6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*	3¾*d.* to 6*s.* 2*d.*	6*s.* to 22*s.* 6*d.*	4*s.* 2*d.* to 22*s.* 6*d.*	4*d.* to 5*s.* 10*d.*	4*d.* to 7*s.*	4*d.* to 3*s.* 8*d.*	1*s.* to 4*s.* 4*d.*	6*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*	2*s.* 4*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*
1834										

Live Stock.

Years.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
1828	1,127	559,904	34,415	46,872
1829	1,027	550,333	29,797	31,019
1830	1,132	551,419	31,110	38,015
1831	1,146	537,203	29,510	38,336
1832	864	552,740	40,877	47,968
1833	1,128	591,769	40,172	46,756
1834				

ANIMALS.—If the vegetable kingdom be rich in Ceylon, the animated one is no less so, from the gigantic elephant to the many-coloured chamelion; indeed earth, air, and water is instinct with life. The elephants of Ceylon have long been famed for their size and docility; as regards the former, some writers have of late stated that the African elephant is the larger of the two. I have, when traversing parts of Ceylon and districts of Africa, had ample opportunities of comparing both beasts in their wild state. Often have I been obliged to sleep in a gigantic cotton or umbrageous jack tree, while a herd of those magnificent animals were grazing beneath me, or browsing off the nethermost branches of my nightly shelter; and at other times I have chosen a safe position for firing (in youthful thoughtlessness) at these sagacious and generous brutes, who have subsequently spared my life when I was at their mercy: I may, therefore, consider myself qualified to judge between the two animals.

The Asiatic elephant is considerably taller than any I ever saw in Africa; his head is not so large, nor his limbs so unwieldly as that of the latter; and, according to the accounts of those who catch and domesticate them, the former is a much more valuable animal than the latter to man. Though still extremely numerous in Ceylon (I have seen wild herds of 100 and 200 young and old elephants), this extraordinary creature will doubtlessly disappear before cultivation and civilization, particularly as his noble nature disdains to produce a breed of slaves. They have been for some time used in government works, in drawing timber and stones for bridges, and in conveying the baggage of a regiment when on the march, a duty which their sure-footedness over the mountains render them peculiarly adapted for.

The tiger of Ceylon is a formidable and destructive animal, and so bold that it has been known to come into a bazaar and snatch off some unfortunate cooley, or seize on an European soldier's child while the mother has been spreading out her washed clothes on the hedge opposite her dwelling. The buffalo in its wild state is also a very troublesome opponent, particularly if his antagonist have a *red* coat or jacket on. The elk of Ceylon assimilates in appearance with the fossil remains of those found in Ireland. Deer of every variety are plentiful, and their flesh, when preserved in honey for two or three years by the wild *Veddas,* forms a feast which a London alderman once tasting would never forget.

Snakes are numerous; but of 20 different kinds, examined by Dr. Davy, 16 were found harmless. The *tic polonga* of the *coluber* species is the most deadly in its poison; I have seen a strong dog die in 15 minutes after being bit, and a fowl in less than three minutes; the *cobra capello carawalla,* and three or four others are nearly equally fatal. The natives say that the *tic polonga* lies in wait on the road side to dart out on travellers, my observations lead me to believe such is the case. A large snake called the *pimberah* exists, the length of which is 30 feet. While travelling through Ovah, and the central provinces, I have been assured by the

Mohanderems of the districts, particularly towards Ruan Welle, of the existence of boas of a much greater size than 30 feet, and their ovi- and vivi-parous habits distinguished. The alligator is found in most rivers, and the jackal in every tope; the mountain provinces are infested with a species of small leech, that cling with peculiar tenacity to any bare flesh, and draw much blood; their bites in diseased constitutions being productive of considerable after suffering.

Wild peacocks are abundant in the interior. The jungle cock of Ceylon is a splendid bird, equal, if not superior, in plumage to the golden pheasant. The quail, snipe, and woodcock of the upper districts would please any epicure, and a fish gourmand, whether on the coast or inland, might never feel satiety, if variety and exquisiteness of flavour could ensure appetite. The beef is small, but sweet; and the mutton of Jaffnapatam equal to South Down. Eating is a favourite pursuit with some old Europeans in Ceylon, and certes it is a good place to indulge that faculty in.

MINERAL KINGDOM.—The metallic riches of Ceylon are yet almost unknown; the island, as before observed, is principally composed of granite, with veins of quartz, hornblende and dolomite; rock and shell limestone are found near Kandy and Jaffnapatam; iron and plumbago (the latter now forms an article of considerable export) are abundant; and gold (some say also quicksilver) and silver are found in the hill-streams. Amethyst, topazes, cats-eyes, garnet, cinnamon-stone, sapphires, rock crystals, shorl, zircon, rubies, and diamonds, &c., the island has long been famed for; the celebrated pearl fishery in the Gulf of Manaar my limits forbid me here dwelling on.* Nitre caves are numerous; alum

* The natural history of the pearl oyster is imperfectly known; the banks have been found suddenly to fail when a productive fishery had been anticipated. At certain seasons the young oysters are seen floating in masses, and are carried by the current round the coast; they afterwards settle and attach themselves by a fibre or beard to the coral rocks, and on sand they adhere together in clusters. When full grown they are again separated and become locomotive. The pearls enlarge during six years,

is plentiful, and the coast from Chilaw to Manaar and Jaffna, on the western side, and from Tangalle, through the Mahagampatoo, to the eastward, contains the most extensive and valuable salt formations which are to be met with in India. The Leways, or natural deposits at Hambantotte, yield the large supply of the finest salt, owing to the peculiar dryness of the air, and the rapid evaporation at certain seasons, the salt which thus crystalizes spontaneously is of great purity, and more slowly dissolved when exposed to the moisture of the atmosphere than that which is artificially prepared.*

General History.†—The original *Singhalese*, or Ceylonese, are probably descended from a colony of *Singhs*, or Rajpoots (to whom, in appearance, even at the present day, they bear a striking resemblance) 500 years B.C. But the Malabars, it is stated, several times succeeded in invading the island 200 years B.C. At an early era the island seems to have attracted the attention of the western world; thus Dionysius, the geographer, mentions *Taprobane* (its ancient and classic name) as famous for its elephants; Ovid speaks of it as a place so far distant

and the oyster is supposed to die after seven years; they are fished at a depth of 36 feet in the calm season. The length of time which the divers remain under water is almost incredible to an European.

* There are many inducements for capitalists to emigrate to Ceylon; its extensive fisheries of pearl and chank, (*voluta gravis*) the manufacture of coir ropes, cocoa-nut oil, and indigo, the distillation of arrack, the preparation of plumbago, the collection of Chaya roots, (*oldenlandia umbellata* of Linnæus, used for dying red, orange and purple) Sapan wood and ivory, for the Indian and English markets, and the cultivation of cinnamon, pepper, cardamoms, tobacco, grain, ginger, cotton, silk, &c. &c.

† Since the text was written I have received the Ceylon Almanac, containing Mr. George Turnour's erudite epitome of the history of Ceylon, derived from Pali and Singhalese records; it does not, however, invalidate the statement, that we know little certain of the early colonization of Ceylon. Mr. Turnour begins his chronology 543 years before the birth of our Saviour, and names the first King, Wejaya, who landed on the island with 700 followers, and founded a government at Tamananowera; but Mr. T. does not state whether the Pali accounts remark if the island was then inhabited.

that it could be no advantage to have his fame extended thither; Pliny thought it the commencement of another continent, and extolled it for the purity of its gold and the size of its pearls. In the reign of Claudius, a Roman, who farmed (says the Rev. Mr. Fellows) the customs in the Red Sea, was driven in his bark by a gale of wind from the coast of Arabia to Taprobane, where he received a most favourable reception, and so extolled the glory of the imperial city that the sovereign of Taprobane sent to Rome an embassy of four persons *via* the Red Sea. We have existing evidence that, in remote ages, Ceylon was an extensively peopled and civilized country (it has now only 58 mouths to the square mile). Near Mantotte are the ruins of a very large city, constructed of brick and mortar, and an immense artificial tank, or reservoir for water, the basin of which is 16 or 18 miles in extent; an embankment about nine miles from the tank is formed of huge stones, eight feet long, four feet broad, and three feet thick (these are cemented together by lime), the length of the dam is 600 feet, the breadth about 60, and the height from 8 to 12 feet. This gigantic work is said to have been executed by the Hindoos, who made Mantotte the capital of a kingdom which they established over the northern parts of the island. Of an antiquity, however, more remote than the foregoing, are various buildings and works towards the interior, constructed of vast stones, elegantly cut and dove-tailed-like into each other. No mortar has been used in some of the edifices which still exist (as if in defiance of the ravaging hand of time), with visible inscriptions on them, which no existing human being can understand. Among the works of this remote age is the Lake of Kandely, near Trincomalee, which is 15 miles in circumference, formed by the artificial junction of two hills, which in one part in particular exhibits a parapet formed of huge blocks of stone, 12 to 14 feet long, and broad and thick in proportion. This parapet is at the base 150 feet broad, and at the summit 30 feet. By means of this wonderful structure the adjoining high lands are connected.

It is also singular that arches are to be found in the parapet, and over them conduits, similar to those used by the Romans in Italy, and termed *condottori.*

Belonging also to this age is a gigantic pagoda (40 miles S. of Batticaloa), the base of whose cone is *a quarter of a mile* in circumference, surrounded by an enclosure *one mile* in circumference, consisting of a broad wall of brick and mortar, with numerous cells in it, and an entering colonade of stone pillars 10 feet high.

Mr. Brooke, in tracing the course of the Maha Villagunga in 1825, came on the ruined tracks of several very extensive canals, one of which he estimated to have been from five to 15 feet deep, and from 40 to 100 feet wide. The natives told him that this canal was cut by people whose stature was *forty feet high!* The largest recorded bridge was one in the southern part of the island, stated to be 280 cubits (630 feet) long; the next in size was 193 feet long, across the Kaloo-Ganga, on the road from Adam's Peak to Bentotte. The remains of a stone bridge exist near the Fort of Kalawo Oya, the stones of which are from 8 to 14 feet long, jointed into one another and laid in regular lines, the upright pillars being grooved into the rocks below; this bridge was built 15,000 years ago, and Captain Forbes demonstrates that the Singalese, at that remote period, used the wedge and chisel for splitting and shaping those huge blocks of stone, after the manner which has only been introduced into Britain in the nineteenth century.

It is recorded in ancient manuscripts that, Anorajhapoora, the ancient Cingalese capital, was surrounded by a wall 16 miles square, and indeed a list of streets of the city is still in existence. To the N. of the ruins of this place, are six pagodas of immense magnitude, the form being half a sphere with a spire built on it; the two largest are each 270 feet high, of solid brick-work, once entirely covered with chunam (lime polished like marble,) the solid contents of one of the largest is about 456,071 cubic yards, and with the materials of which it is composed, a wall of brick might be constructed

12 feet high, two feet wide, and 97 miles long; the roofs are composed of curiously carved rafters of wood, and the expense and labour employed in the whole of the structures must have been immense.*

But we must leave these remote ages and come to some later period. In the sixth century Ceylon was the chief mart for eastern commerce;† in the thirteenth century it was visited by Marco Polo, who pretty accurately narrated the particulars of the island, which he described as 'the finest in the world.' The central situation of Ceylon had led to its port being frequented by ships from China, India, Arabia, &c. by which means Galle and Columbo, from their favourable situation, became entrepôts for the general commerce of the East. When the Portuguese first visited the island, A.D. 1505, they found it had for a long period been declining, owing to intestine wars, and invasions from Malabar and Arabia; the Cingalese King availed himself of the assistance of the Portugese Admiral (Almeida) for the expulsion of the invaders, promising in return an annual tribute in cinnamon. In 1518, the Portuguese, under Alvarenga, began to fortify themselves in Columbo, Galle, &c., and soon after they obtained complete possession of the maritime provinces, and drove the King of Kandy to such extremities, that he was glad to retain even possession of the interior provinces.

For a century the Portuguese held their sway, when in 1603, the first Dutch fleet arrived at Trincomalee and Batticaloa, and offered to assist the King of Kandy against the Portu-

* In the ancient histories of Trincomalee it is stated by Sir Alexander Johnston that two kings of *Solamandelum, Manumethy Candesolam,* and his son *Kalocarta Maharasa,* reigned over the greater part of Ceylon, and over the southern peninsula of India, about the 512th year of the *Cali Yug,* or 4,400 years ago, who constructed the great buildings and tanks, the remains of which are yet extant.

† In the sixteenth year of the reign of Praakrama Bahoo the 1st, (A.D. 1153,) this Singalese monarch sent a fleet of 500 ships, with an army on board, and provisioned for 12 months, to avenge the insults offered to the Singalese ambassador and to Singalese merchants by the King of Cambodiae and Arramana. This vast fleet was equipped in six months

guese. In 1632, a strong Dutch armament, acting in conjunction with the King of Kandy's forces, commenced a series of contests with the Portuguese, and after a long and sanguinary struggle, which lasted until 1656-7, the latter were finally driven from an island of the sea coast of which they had been masters for nearly 150 years.

The Cingalese, however, soon found that they had exchanged masters to no advantage, for from 1656 to 1796, when the British in their turn came to the aid of the Kandians, the Dutch were engaged in a series of perpetual hostilities with their mountain neighbours. Nor were we more fortunate than our predecessors, for in 1798, on the elevation of a new king to the Kandian throne, we became involved in hostilities, which led to our capture of the Kandian capital in 1803.

We did not, however, long retain the capital, the Kandians attacked us with great violence, compelled our troops to a precipitate retreat, massacred 150 sick soldiers in the hospitals, and having surrounded the British force, required them to lay down their arms; the commanding officer, Major Davie, unfortunately did so, the Malay troops were picked aside, and the whole English force instantly massacred, except three European officers retained as prisoners, and one mutilated corporal, who made his escape to Columbo with the melancholy intelligence. Until 1815 we retained the maritime provinces, while the King of Kandy kept the interior, but in that year the monarch being deposed on account of his repeated acts of oppression and cruelty (one act was making the wife of his prime minister pound to death her own children in a rice mortar), General Brownrigg was invited by the Kandian chiefs to take possession of the interior, and excepting an expensive and troublesome insurrection, which lasted from 1817 to 1819, Ceylon has ever since had the British sway established over the whole island.

CAPTAINS-GENERAL AND GOVERNORS OF CEYLON, WHILST IN POSSESSION OF THE PORTUGUESE.

Pedro Lopez de Souza, Jerome de Azevedo, Francois de Menezes, Manuel Mascarenhas Homen, Nanha Alvares Pereira, Constantine de Say Noranha, D. George

d'Almeida, George d'Albuque, Diego de Melho, Antoine Mascarenhas, Phillippe Mascarenhas, Manuel Mascarenhas Homen, Francois de Mello Castro, Antoine de Sousa Continho, under whose administration Colombo was surrendered to the Dutch; A. D. Mezely Menezes, last Captain-General, (in command of Jaffna and Manar.)

GOVERNORS, WHILST IN THE POSSESSION OF THE DUTCH.

AT GALLE.—William Jacobszen Coster, Commander at the surrender of that place; administration commenced 13th March, 1640. Jan Thysz, President and Governor, 1st August, 1640. Joan Matsuyker, Ordinary Councillor and Governor, 24th May, 1646. Jacob Van Kittenstein, Governor, 26th Feb. 1650. Adrian Van der Meyden, Governor, 11th Oct. 1653.

COLOMBO.—Adrian Van der Meyden, Governor, 12th May, 1656. Ryklof Van Goens, Governor, 12th May, 1660. Jacob Hustaar Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Governor, 27th Dec. 1663. Ryklof Van Goens, Governor, from 19th Nov. 1664. Lourens Van Peil, Commander, President, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 3rd Dec. 1680. Thomas Van Rhee, Governor, 19th June, 1693. Paulus de Rhoo, appointed Governor and Director of Ceylon, 29th Jan. 1695. Gerrit de Heer, Governor, 22d Feb. 1697. The members of the Council, 26th Nov. 1702. Mr. Cornelis Johannes Simonsz, Governor, May, 1763. Hendrick Becker, Governor, 22d Dec. 1707. Mr. Isaak Augistin Rumph, Governor and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 7th Dec. 1716. Arnold Moll, Commander at Galle, 11th June, 1723. Johannes Hertenberg, Governor, 12th January, 1724. Jan Paulus Schagen, Commander at Galle, 19th Oct. 1725. Petrus Vuyst, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 16th Sept. 1726. Stephanus Versluys, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India; administration commenced 27th Aug. 1729. Gualterus Woutersz, Commander of Jaffnapatam. 25th Aug. 1732. Jacob Christian Pielaat, Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Commissary 21st Dec. 1732. Diederick Van Domburg, Governor, 21st Jan. 1734. Jan Maccara, Commander of Galle, 1st June, 1736. Gustaff Willem Baron Van Imhoff, Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Governor, 33d July, 1736. Willem Maurits Bruininck, Governor, 12th March, 1740. Daniel Overbeck, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 3d Jan. 1742. Julius Valentyn Stein Van Gollnesse, Extraordinary Councillor of India, 11th May, 1743. Gerrard Van Vreeland, Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Governor, 6th March, 1751. Jacob de Jong, Commander of Jaffnapatam, administration commenced 26th Feb. 1751. Joan Gideon Loten, 30th Sept. 1752. Jan Schreuder, Councillor and Governor of India, 17th March, 1757. Lubbert Jan Baron Van Eck, Governor, (under whose administration Kandy was taken on the 19th Feb. 1763) 11th Nov. 1762. Anthony Mooyart, Commander of Jaffnapatam, 13th May, 1765. Iman Willem Falck, Governor, &c. 9th Aug. 1765. Willem Jacob Van de Graaf, Governor, &c. of India, 7th Feb. 1785. Joan Gerard Van Angelbeek, Governor, &c. under whose administration Colombo surrendered to the arms of his Britannic Majesty, on the 16th Feb. 1796.

ENGLISH GOVERNORS.

The Hon. the Governor of Madras in Council; administration commenced 16th

Feb. 1796. The Hon. Frederick North, 12th Oct. 1798. Lieut.-Gen. Right Hon. Sir Thomas Maitland, G.C.B. 19th July, 1805. Major-Gen. John Wilson, Lieut.-Governor, 19th March, 1811. General Sir Robert Brownrigg, Bart. G.C.B. 11th March, 1812. Major-Gen. Sir E. Barnes, K.C.B. Lieut.-Governor, 1st Feb. 1820. Lieut.-Gen. the Hon. Sir E. Paget, K.C.B. 2d Feb. 1823. Major Gen. Sir J. Campbell, K.C.B. Lieut. Governor, 6th Nov. 1822. Lieut.-Gen. Sir E. Barnes, G.C.B. 18th Jan. 1824. Major-Gen. Sir J. Wilson, K.S.S. Lieut.-Governor, 13th Oct. 1831. The Right Hon. Sir Robert Wilmot Horton, G.C.B. 23d Oct. 1831.

POPULATION.—That Ceylon was formerly extensively peopled, is evident from the works and structures before alluded to, but it would appear the number of the inhabitants had been declining for the last four or five centuries. An increase has now commenced in the maritime provinces, which had in 1814,—mouths, 475,883: in 1824, 595,105; and in 1832, 698,611. Col. Colebrooke states in his report, that the population in 1824, was in the southern or Cingalese provinces 399,408; in the northern or Malabar districts, 195,697, and in the interior or Kandyan provinces, 256,835, total 852,940. The returns from the maritime provinces are doubtless correct, as the village registers of marriages, and births, and deaths are kept as punctually there as in England;* but having myself traversed the Kandyan provinces more extensively perhaps than any European, I should think the estimate of their population is under rather than over the mark: it is to be feared, however, that the decreasing of the semi-barbarous inhabitants of this splendid region, has scarcely reached its acme, perhaps, it may now be considered stationary, as the comforts of the people are on the increase.

A Colonial Office Manuscript affords me a few consecutive years of the aggregate population of the island (I derive 1831 and 1832 from the Ceylon Almanac): it appears singular that the number of slaves should be on the increase, although every child born of bond parents since 1812 has been born free according to the generous determination of the slave owners.

* The coroner's inquests held in the Maritime Provinces for the year 1833 shewed 148 deaths, of whom 38 fell from trees, 37 were drowned, 19 fell into wells, 6 from bites of serpents, 1 alligator, 2 elephants, 8 murder, 10 natural, and among the remainder are included 8 murders.

Population of Ceylon. (Colonial Office manuscript).

Years.	White and Free Coloured People.		Slaves.		Total.		Persons employed in			Maritime Provinces.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
1823*	374982	347805	10509	11850	385491	359655	..	..	..	..	..	..
1824*	376865	347057	11798	13198	388663	360255	..	..	..	..	..	..
1827	464747	401104	10151	9536	474898	410676	..	..	..	..	..	..
1828	479045	426252	9732	9790	488777	436042	295124	33082	29525	18739	5183	10283
1829	486416	426387	10596	9868	497102	436255	301576	38302	31219	18062	5163	12018
1830	492938	434717	12394	10652	507832	445369	302254	38023	31273	..	..	..
1831	490474	439362	10501	10155	500975	449517	306821	39593	36127	20993	4745	17928
1832	512679	462621	11373	11616	524052	474237	304095	26390	47710	18705	8114	17025
1833												
1834												

Census of the Maritime Districts of Ceylon in 1814.

Above the Age of Puberty.		Children.		Total Males.	Total Females.	Grand Total.
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
156,447	142,453	95,091	81,892	251,538	224,345	475,883

The following in some respects complete view of the population is highly interesting; it shews how thinly the island is peopled, there not being in some districts more than four, five, or six mouths to a square mile!—The average for the maritime districts is 66—for the Kandyan provinces 31—and for the whole island but 40.

* I should think these years embrace only the maritime provinces. Dr. Davy estimated the population of the Kandyan districts, in 1819, at 300,000 —a number I should think, from my own knowledge of the country, rather too high; but it is perhaps difficult to say whether the population be increasing or decreasing in the interior.

Census taken in the Year 1832 of the Population of Ceylon, and of the Births, Marriages and Deaths.

	County or District.	Area in Square Miles.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Slaves.		Total.		Aliens and Resident Strangers.	Population to the Square Mile.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
			Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females			Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.			
Maritime Provinces.	Colombo	1,472	1,746	1,835	121,286	112,668	114	132	123,746	114,635	1,871	162	61,358	6,854	10,179	7,292	2,030	5,240
	Galle	592	400	470	44,355	43,459	8	5	47,763	43,934	161	150	17,510	5,221	6,415	2,600	233	1,504
	Tangalle	2,360	42	26	55,282	50,993	..	..	55,324	51,019	207	45	26,247	3,414	3,267	4,435	555	4,406
	Batticaloa	1,360	197	190	15,109	13,924	2	2	15,308	14,116	..	21	9,069	376	4,921	1,293	117	351
	Trincomalee	1,680	285	65	7,070	5,391	16	18	7,371	5,474	550	8	1,598	964	447	458	133	726
	Jaffnapatam	1,320	302	322	74,086	71,554	10,144	10,359	84,532	82,235	215	136	63,493	5,393	19,829	1,036	4,132	3,876
	Manar	1,088	117	130	10,940	10,516	27	26	11,084	10,702	350	20	4,396	450	623	436	698	336
	Chilaw	720	109	112	15,018	12,735	11	21	15,138	12,868	1,016	40	6,621	941	752	991	210	503
	Delft	28	..	..	1,651	1,592	..	..	1,651	1,592	39	117	969	34	7	164	6	83
	Total..	10,520	3,198	3,150	344,797	322,262	10,322	10,583	358,317	335,975	4,319	66	191,201	23,631	46,440	18,705	8114	17,025
Kandyan Provinces.	Uderatte	1,128	..	..	34,541	27,560	380	425	34,921	27,985	3,179	58	21,472	2,073	586			
	Four Korles	304	..	..	18,231	13,498	82	81	18,313	13,579	660	106	11,615	325	160			
	Three Korles	360	7	..	4,727	3,530	17	6	4,751	3,536	131	23	3,601	..	47	The returns under these heads must be wholly conjectural, no registers having ever been kept referable to the native population.		
	Seven Korles	3,728	8	4	57,698	48,671	238	206	57,944	48,881	400	28	57,701	..	243			
	Uwa	4,144	..	..	16,931	16,672	210	222	17,141	16,894	1,281	8	15,280	..	234			
	Matele	2,272	..	..	7,525	6,798	76	70	7,595	6,868	309	6	2,515	361	..			
	Saffragam	1,584	..	..	24,327	19,759	54	43	24,381	19,802	..	28	25,000	..	..			
	Tamankadewe	624	..	..	689	717	..	..	689	717	..	2	680	..	..			
	Total..	14,144	15	4	164,669	137,205	1,051	1,053	165,735	138,262	6,400	21	142,894	2,759	1,270			
	Grand Total..	24,664	3,213	3,154	509,466	459,467	11,373	11,636	524,052	474,237	10,719	40	334,095	26,390	47,710			

Population of Ceylon, 1,009,008.

The following table demonstrates that in the Colombo district, at least, population is on the increase; and it will be observed that the augmentation (except in the fort and pettah) has been steady for the last five years.

Population of the District of Colombo

Town of Colombo.				Total.	Corles or Divisions.	Grand Total of Colombo District.
Years.	Fort.	Pettah or Native Town.				
		Within.	Without.			
1816	657	4,894	21,664	27,215	161,286	188,501
1826	734	4,975	25,475	31,188	184,172	215,360
1827	514	4,736	23,916	29,162	192,982	222,144
1828	499	4,006	24,454	28,959	196,543	225,502
1829	495	4,343	24,792	29,630	198,637	228,267
1830	465	4,500	26,990	31,955	200,768	232,723
1831	432	4,760	26,357	31,549	203,242	234,791
1832						237,781
1833						

The population of the island, although comprizing a variety of different nations, may be divided into four distinct classes:—first, The Singalese or Ceylonese (descended, as some say, from the Sings or Rajpoots of Hindoostan, and by others from the Siamese)* proper, who occupy Kandy, and the S. and S. W. coasts of the island from Hambantotte to Chilaw. Second, the Malabars or Hindoos, who invaded Ceylon from the opposite coast, and are in possession of the north and east coasts, and of the peninsula of Jaffnapatam. Third, the Moors or descendants of the Arabs, or perhaps, from Mahomedans of Upper India, who are dispersed all over the island (as the Moslems are over Hindoostan) and in Pultam district form the mass of population. Fourth, Veddas or Beddas the aborigines of the island, who dwell in the most untutored state (having neither habitations nor clothing) in the great forests which extend from the S. to the E. and N., and also in the most inaccessible parts of the interior, wild fruits and beasts being their sole sustenance, and the branches of large trees their resting place. There are some Malays, Caffres, and

* Is it not probable that the Jains of Upper India and Rajpoots are one and the same people with the Siamese or Buddhists of Siam?

Javanese, a few Chinese, and Parsee traders, and a good many descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch, and even of the English mixed with native blood, scattered over the island. In colour the Singalese vary from light brown or olive to black; the eyes sometimes hazel, but the hair almost always black, long and silky; in height they are from 5 ft. 4 to 5 ft. 7; clean made, with neat muscle, and small bone; the chest capacious, and the shoulders broad; and in the mountainous districts, like most other Highlanders, they have short but strong and rather muscular legs and thighs; the hands and feet, like those of the Hindoos, are uncommonly small; the head well shaped, perhaps in general longer than the European; the features often handsome, and generally intelligent and animated; the beard is unshorn, giving manliness to the youthful countenance, and dignity to that of age. The Singalese woman, particularly those of the maritime provinces, are really handsome. The beau ideal is thus described by a Kandian courtier, well versed in the attributes of an Eastern Venus:—'her hair should be voluminous, like the tail of a peacock—long, reaching to the knees, and terminating in graceful curls; her eyebrows should resemble the rainbow, her eyes the blue sapphire, and the petals of the blue manilla-flower; her nose should be like the bill of the hawk; her lips should be bright and red, like coral, or the young leaf of the iron tree; her teeth should be small, regular, closely set, and like jessamine-buds; her neck should be large and round, resembling the herrigodea; her chest capacious; her breast firm and conical, like the yellow cocoa-nut, and her waist small—almost small enough to be clasped by the hand; her hips wide; limbs tapering; soles of feet without any hollow; and the surface of her body in general soft, delicate, smooth, and rounded, without the asperities of projecting bones and sinews.' The foregoing may be considered the most general external character of the Singalese, who are rather remarkable for agility and flexibility of fibre than for strength and power of limb. Whatever may have been the extent of civilization in Ceylon at a remote period,

at present I cannot say that the Singalese are superior, if indeed equal, to the Hindoos, in the domestic and fine arts; although many branches of manufactures, such as the weaving of cotton and silk, the smelting of, and working in, gold, silver, iron, copper, &c.; the cutting and setting of precious stones, the glazing of pottery, application of lacker, preparation of gunpowder, casting of cannon, distillation of spirits, &c. &c. are carried on, it is by the most simple instruments, and with little aid from mechanics, and less from science. In the fine arts they are scarcely on a par with the Hindoos, and in their structures of a recent period certainly far behind the latter people, or even less advanced than the Burmese. They however possess great capabilities of instruction, and in the neighbourhood of the principal British stations are beginning to profit by the superior handicraft of the European artizan.

Caste, as respects the Singalese and Malabars, is scrupulously preserved, and very widely ramified, almost every occupation having its distinct caste. There are for instance, the gold and silversmith's caste, the fisher's, the barber's, the washer*men*, the manufacturers of jaghery (sugar), the toddy drawer's, the lime-maker's, &c. &c. &c.; but the highest and most esteemed caste is that of Vellalahs, or Goyas, whose occupations are purely agricultural; however as land is assigned for the performance of every description of service, the practice of agriculture is not confined to this class, but is exercised by persons of all castes for their subsistence. By the Kandyan laws the intermarriage of the high and low castes is prohibited, and many distinctions recognized and enforced by which the latter are degraded and reduced to a servile state, now considered hereditary. While the Malabars professing the Hindu faith maintain the *religious*, as well as the *civil* distinction of caste, the Singalese or Buddhists have abolished the former and retained the latter; hence, perhaps, the hostilities which prevailed between both sects, whose sacred dogmas are both apparently based on the creed, and doctrines of Menû, the great Hindoo lawgiver, an illustration for which will be found by contemplating the parallel of the Romanists

and Lutherans, the essentials of whose religion stripped of externals are for the most part alike. The distinctions of caste in Hindoostan as well as in Siam, Birmah, and Ceylon, had their prigin in a superabundant population pressing too closely on the heels of subsistence, and it was perhaps thought that the introduction of a minute division of labour would not only give more extended employment, but also enable each person to learn more carefully his business; probably, also, it was politically conjectured that the division of an immense population of so many millions into castes or sects, would render the task of government more easy, by keeping every individual in a fixed station in society. Women, as in most parts of the East, are looked on as an inferior race of beings, and not fit to be trusted, as will be seen by the following popular distich, translated from the Singalese language :—

'I've seen the udumbara tree* in flower, white plumage on the crow,
And fishes' footsteps o'er the deep, have traced through ebb and flow;
If man it is who thus asserts, his word you may believe,
But all that woman says distrust—she speaks but to deceive.'

BUDDHIST OR SINGHALESE RELIGION.

The religion of the Singalese is Buddhism, the early history of which is little known. Many Hindoo writers agree, that *Budh* or *Boodh*, is supposed to be the ninth avatar or incarnation of *Vishnu* (the second person of the Hindoo Triad, and God of preservation;) having appeared for the purpose of reclaiming the Hindoos from many abominations into which they had fallen, and to teach them more benevolent forms of worship, than through the means of human and animal sacrifices which they *then* extensively (and with respect to animals *now*) practised. These doctrines, says Mr. Coleman, being too simple, and therefore interfering too strongly with the privileges of the Brahminical priests, a religious war ensued between the old and new sects, and the Buddhists were ultimately expelled from the peninsula of India.

* A species of fig-tree, which never bears flowers.

[Here we find a striking analogy to the incarnation of our Saviour.] But the Buddhists, in general, will not tolerate the idea of superior antiquity being vested in the Brahminical faith; they deny the identity of their deity with the ninth avatar of Vishnu, which they declare was a mere manifestation of his power. They do not acknowledge a *creation* of the universe, but assert that it has been destroyed many times and by some extraordinary operation as often reproduced. They enumerate twenty-two of these regenerated worlds, each of which was successively governed by Buddhas, and that the present universe has been ruled successively by four, of whom *Gautama* or *Gaudama* (whose doctrines now prevail in Ceylon, Ava, Siam, &c.) is the fourth; a fifth, Maitree Buddha, is yet to come, previous to which this world will be destroyed.

The commandments of Buddha, were originally *five* (necessary towards salvation) but five others were added, which were meritorious but not imperative. The first five are—1st. Not to kill a living creature of any kind; 2nd. Not to steal; 3rd. Not to commit adultery; 4th. Not to speak an untruth on any occasion; 5th. Not to use intoxicating liquors or drugs. The meritorious commands are—not to eat after mid-day; and not to sleep on costly, soft, or elevated beds, (but on clean mats) or indulge sensually. The others inculcate, generally, virtue and benevolence, and the practice of individual abstinence.

The *heavens* of the Buddhists are twenty-six, placed one above another; which together with their *hells* are thus described by Mr. Coleman; and it will be seen that there is indeed much need of the light of education and Christianity, to remove such ideas from the minds of an otherwise intelligent and fine looking race of human beings:—

THE HEAVENS of the Buddhas are 26, placed one above another. At the end of the *maha calpi*, when the world will be at an end, six of the lower of these celestial abodes will be destroyed by fire, four by storms, and six by water. The four superior heavens will escape destruction; but what will become of the six intermediate ones does not so clearly appear.

THE GREAT HELLS are 34; but besides these there are 120 smaller hells. Those

which are hot lie immediately under the earth; which may possibly account for the many volcanoes, whirlpools, and sundry explosive and other turbulent things that it contains.

The punishment for sinners in these hells are as correspondingly degrading, as the condition of the good is in the heavens transcendently happy; with this difference, that in their amended state they contrive to forget (a thing *very uncommon* in this lower world of *ours*) what they ascended from: whereas, in their debased situation, their reminiscences are more perfect; as we are told of a priestly dignitary, who having, for practices it may be presumed partaking of the nature of the insect, been transformed into a louse, became so absolutely miserable at the idea of his goods and chattels, especially his garment, in which he took great pride (unlike the pious and patriarchal pastors of the western world, who entertain no such proud or selfish feelings, or worldly considerations for rich garments or rich chattels of any kind) being divided among the surviving priests, that his agitation was painfully obvious to his old associates, who, with the feeling common to their order towards sentient animals, applied to Gautama to know what to do. The deity desired them to wait seven days (the term of a louse's life,) in which time the miserable insect would be emancipated in some way from his then unhappy state. A louse's mental agony is, however, but as the bite of one to some of the infernal punishments of the Buddha's Tartarus. Assura Nat are their Minos and Rhadamanthus, and, as it may be imagined, are not very tender in awarding to their opponents their full share of any tortures which their misdeeds may have called for. One of these is, that a man as big as three mountains, and who is always in a hungry state, is tantalized by having a mouth no longer than the eye of the finest needle. The punishments attributed to the hells of the Buddhas assimilate very nearly to those ascribed to the Tartari of the Hindus.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE WORLD will, it is imagined, take place in the following manner. A great rain will, at a future time fall, in torrents; after which not a drop will descend from the heavens for a hundred thousand years. In this period, plants, animals, and every living thing will perish, the sun and the moon will disappear, and, in their stead, two false suns will arise. The one will succeed the other, rising when it sets. There will then be no night. The heat will be intense, and small bodies of water dried up. A third sun will arise and dry up the largest rivers; a fourth, and fifth will come and dry up the different seas; a sixth will rend asunder the 1,010,000 earths, from whose rents will be emitted smoke and flames. By the seventh sun the heavenly mountain Mienmo, and all its celestial inhabitants, will be consumed. The destroying fire, having then nothing more to feed it, will expire of its own accord.

FUTURE STATE.—The Buddhas allege that every thing exists from natural causes; that virtue brings its own reward, and vice its own punishment; and that the state of man is probationary. If he be virtuous, he will after death, ascend to one of the lower heavens, but will be born again many times: and as he may each time continue virtuous, or according to the extent of his virtue, he will progressively ascend in the scale of celestial bliss, till he may finally reach the highest heaven, and obtain *Nivani* or *absorption*, not as the Hindus believe, into a supreme being, which would not be in accordance with the doctrines of the Budd-

has, but a kind of cessation of animal suffering, and exemption from farther transmigration. [In fact *nothingness.*]

If he have been wicked, he will, in like manner, descend into the different hells, and will exist again in the forms of different animals, according to the nature and extent of his sins; but the duration of his punishment is not eternal, and is still supposed to depend upon himself. He may thus, according to his conduct in the various forms he may exist in, be again elevated to the probationary condition of man; and, although his crimes may have once degenerated him into a lion, or, as just noticed, into a louse, a monkey, a mammoth, or a maggot, he will still, on attaining, the state of man, be in a condition to look forward, by the practice of virtue, to obtain at a future period the blissful reward of Nivani. [Or *Nothingness!*] If, however, he continue to be wicked in this degraded and degenerate state, he will descend still lower and become a devil, than which nothing can be imagined more base or miserable.

Gaudama has enjoined, as a necessary qualification to obtain *Nivani* or *absorption*, the performance of *dana*, or the bestowing of alms; and of *bavana*, which consists in pronouncing three words: *aneizzo*, *doccha*, and *anatta*. The first is to shew that he recollects that life is subject to vicissitudes; the second, that man is thereby liable to misfortune; and the third, that exemption from either does not depend upon himself.

Priesthood.—The Buddhas do not, like the Brahmins, respect fire; and the *rahans* (or priests) never kindle one, lest they should thereby destroy the life of an animal.* They consequently do not cook any food; though they eat that which has possessed life, provided it be ready dressed; such, at least, appears to be the case in Ava, but in some places it is said to be different. They commonly subsist on provisions given as alms; to collect which they issue every morning from their convents, as early as it is sufficiently light for them to distinguish the veins on their hands. They do not beg, but they stop before every house in a street. If food be given to them, they put it into their *sabeit* or baskets, and pass on without returning thanks: if none be given, they go on to the next house in silence. They are clothed in a large yellow mantle, folded becomingly round them, passing over the left shoulder and leaving the right shoulder and breast uncovered. They shave their heads and beards, and go barefooted: are usually clean, but do not wear any ornaments. On receiving the sacerdotal rank, they are enjoined to live in houses built under trees in the woods: but these injunctions are qualified, so that they usually reside in convents or colleges, which in Ava are described as the best habitations in the empire, built in the most agreeable situations.

They are well-conducted, kind and hospitable to strangers, and are the best informed men in the Burman empire. Each college has a head, called *zara* or teacher; of which, according to the size of the colleges, or the estimation in which they are held, there are degrees. The head of the colleges is the *zarado* or royal abbot. Towards the whole of them the utmost respect and attention are shewn. They are the gratuitous instructors of youth, which is considered as a work of merit.

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* A Buddhist priest on being shewn the animalculæ in a glass of water, rather than continue to live even on water, is said to have voluntarily starved himself.

During their priesthood they must remain in a state of celibacy, and observe other strict regulations; but may, at any time leave their convent and marry, which is frequently done.

The Buddhists do not, strictly speaking, believe in a Supreme Being; the Jains, however, (one of the sects of Boodh) do, and also admit of castes, which the former deny; yet the Jains assert that the Supreme Being has no power over the universe. The dead are generally burned as among the Hindoos, where the Ganges is not contiguous.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT OF CEYLON.

The legislative administration of the island is confided to the governor, aided by a council composed from among the oldest and most distinguished European civil servants, appointed by the governor or sometimes by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in England, and comprising six unofficial members selected from the chief landed proprietors, or principal merchants: it is provided that printed copies of proposed ordinances be sent to the members ten days before the summoning of the council, and the regulations or laws of the government are published in the Official Gazette some time before their enactment, in order to elicit public discussion; when passed into law they take immediate effect in the maritime districts on their publication, and in the Kandyan districts by the governor's proclamation, subject in both to the final approval of the king in council. There is a special board for the administration of the affairs of the Kandyan Provinces, whom the governor is in the habit of consulting previous to his extension of an enactment there, which may have been ordained for the lower or maritime provinces. In the maritime provinces the governor is restricted from authorising contingent disbursements exceeding 75*l.*, without the concurrence of the council; but in the Kandyan provinces he orders expenditure on his own control. In his executive capacity the governor refers, or not to the council, as he wills, but his proceedings are recorded in the secretary for government's office or in the department charged with the execution of the measure. The regulations of the government are published with the transla-

tions, in the native languages, (Cingalese and Malabar), and widely disseminated.

Three classes of persons are employed in carrying on the business of government: first, the civil servants, who are sent out as 'writers' from England, under the patronage of the Secretary of State for the Colonies; there are twenty-five principal appointments in the island to which these gentlemen are alone eligible, the *seniors* being exclusively employed as heads of departments, in the revenue, as government agents, chief secretary, paymaster, or auditor-general, &c. &c.: as collectors of districts and provincial judges and magistrates. The *juniors* as assistants to the collectors or magistrates, and in the chief secretary's department. On its present footing the effective civil service consists of thirty-eight members; an acquirement of one or both of the native languages is indispensable previous to the holding of a responsible situation. The second class is formed of Europeans (*not of the civil service*), or their descendants, from among whom are appointed provincial magistrates, (of which rank there are sixteen), and clerks in public offices. The third class comprises the natives, who hold the situations of modeliars (or Lieuts.) or korles (or districts), interpreters to the courts of justice, and to the collectors' offices or *cutcheries*. The modeliars are still recognized according to ancient custom as commanders of the lascoreigns or district militia, although at present chiefly employed in the civil administration of the country, and in the execution of public works. There are, of course, gradations of native officers in authority under them; the assistants of all natives are still regulated in a great degree by caste. Independent of the numerous *government* 'headmen' and the *titular* 'headmen' who receive no emoluments, there are, in conformity to ancient usage, headmen appointed to each caste or class, some of whom receive certain perquisites as the head of fishermen do of the fish caught, &c. Since 1828 no 'headmen' have been appointed who could not read and write the English language, and the headmen form a valuable connecting link in the social fabric, as well as an intelligent

and respctable body of individuals, from among whom the government can select officers for the more immediate service of the state. The number of principal headmen in the Cingalese districts amount to 243. In the Malabar to 112, and in the Kandyan to 47; these numbers do not include the headmen of villages, who are more numerous.

The fourth class consists of officers selected from the regiments serving in Ceylon, for the fulfilment of the post of government agents or sitting magistrates in the Kandyan Provinces, the duties of which are performed efficiently and creditably upon small salaries in addition to their military allowances.

PATRONAGE.—All appointments to the higher offices are provisionally made by the governor, who selects candidates from the civil service according to their seniority, when otherwise qualified, subject, however, to the confirmation of the Secretary of State in England.

The magistrates and clerks are also appointed by the government; the modeliars and principal headmen hold their appointments under His Excellency's Warrant, being recommended by the Commissioner of Revenue, the provincial headmen being recommended by the Collectors of Districts. In the Kandyan Provinces appointments are similarly made by the Governor, on the recommendation of the Board of Commissioners (to whom the more immediate management of those Provinces is committed) including the chiefs or principal headmen of provinces or departments, the chiefs of temples, and the priests in the colleges or *wihares*. In the Northern or Malabar provinces, the headmen of villages or castes are commonly appointed on the nomination of the inhabitants, a deputation of villagers making a return to the magistrate of the candidate approved of by them.

JUDICIAL.

Justice is administered first by a supreme court, with powers equivalent to the Court of King's Bench, and in equitable

jurisdiction to the High Court of Chancery; it is presided over by three judges,* appointed from England, aided by a King's Advocate (whose functions are similar to the Lord Advocate of Scotland,) Master in Equity and Registrar, also appointed from home: and thanks to the enlightened patriotism of Sir Alexander Johnson, trial by jury, (with reference to Europeans or natives), is established under its supremacy.

The island has been recently divided into five *provinces*, the N., S., E., W. and central, each of which are again subdivided into districts.

Within each district, there is one court, called the District Court, holden before one judge, and three assessors; the district judge is appointed by the crown and removable at pleasure; the assessors are selected from amongst the inhabitants of the island, whether natives or otherwise, twenty-one years of age, possessing certain qualifications. The right of appointing, in each district court, one person to act as permanent assessor, is reserved to the crown. The officers of the district courts are appointed in like manner as those of the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court is held at Colombo (except on circuit), and the district courts at a convenient specified place in each district.

Each district court is a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and has cognizance of and full power to hear and determine civil suits, in which the defendant is resident, or in which the subject of action shall have occurred, within the district (where the judge is a party, the court adjoining takes cognizance of the cause); and to try all offences, short of such as are punishable with death, transportation or banishment, imprisonment for more than a year, whipping exceeding one hundred lashes, a fine exceeding 10*l*, which shall have been committed within the district.

Each district court has the care and custody of the persons

* The chief and two puisne judges hold office during the pleasure of the crown, and may be suspended upon proof of incapacity or misconduct by the governor and council.

and estates of idiots and lunatics resident within the district, with power to appoint guardians and curators; and power to appoint administrators of intestates' effects within the district, and to determine the validity of wills and to record and grant probate thereof, and to take securities from executors and administrators, and to require accounts of such persons.

Offences against the revenue laws are cognizable before the district courts (saving the rights of the Vice Admiralty Courts), limited as in respect to criminal prosecutions.

The judgements and interlocutory and other orders of the district courts, are pronounced in open court, the judge stating, in the hearing of the assessors, the questions of law and fact, with the grounds and reasons of his opinion; and the assessors declare, in open court, their respective opinions and votes on each and every question of law or fact: in case of a difference of opinion between the judge and the majority of the assessors, the opinion of the judge prevails and is taken as the sentence of the whole court, a record being made and preserved of the vote of each.

The Supreme Court is a court of sole appellate jurisdiction for the district courts, with original criminal jurisdiction throughout the island: civil and criminal sessions of the supreme court are held by one of the judges in each circuit, twice in each year: all the judges are required to be never absent at the same time from Colombo, and also to be resident at the same time at Colombo, not less than one month, twice in each year.

At every civil sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, three assessors are associated with the judge; and every criminal sessions is held before the judge and a jury of thirteen men. In all civil suits, the judge and assessors deliver their opinions and votes as in the district courts; in appeals from the district courts, in criminal prosecutions, the appeal has not the effect of staying the execution of the sentence, unless the judge of the district court see fit. All questions of fact, upon which issue shall be joined at any criminal sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, are decided by the jury, or

major part of them; questions of law are decided by the judge in open court, with the grounds and reasons thereof.

Where a person is adjudged to die by the supreme court, at a criminal sessions, execution is respited till the case be reported by the presiding judge to the governor.

Judges on circuit holding criminal sessions, are required to direct all fiscals and keepers of prisons, within the circuit, to certify the persons committed and their offences, who may be required to be brought before the judge.

The judges of the supreme court, on circuit, examine the records of the district courts, and if it shall appear that contradictory or inconsistent decisions have been given by the same or different district courts, the judges report the same to the supreme court at Colombo, who prepare the draft of a declaratory law upon the subject, and transmit it to the governor, who submits such draft to the legislative council. The supreme court also make rules and orders for the removal of doubts.

The supreme court, or any judge of the same, at sessions or on circuit, may grant or refuse writs of *habeas corpus* and injunctions; it may require district courts to transmit to Colombo the records in any case appealed, and may hear and decide appeals, in a summary way, without argument, and may frame and establish rules and orders of the court, not repugnant to the charter, which promote the discovery of truth, economy, and expedition in business, to be drawn up in plain and succinct terms, avoiding unnecessary repetitions and obscurity.

Appeals are allowed to the King in Council, subject to the following rules and limitations:—1. The appeal must be brought, by way of review, before the judges of the supreme court collectively, holding a general sessions at Colombo, at which all the judges shall be present. 2. The matter in dispute must exceed the value of 500*l*. 3. Leave to appeal must be applied for within 14 days. 4. If the appellant be the party against whom sentence is given, the sentence shall be carried into execution, if the respondent shall give secu-

rity for the immediate performance of any sentence pronounced by the Privy Council; until which the sentence appealed from shall be stayed. 5. If the appellant shall show that real justice requires the stay of execution, pending the appeal, the supreme court may stay execution, on security, as before. 6. In all cases, the appellant shall give security to prosecute the appeal, and for costs. 7. The court appealed from shall determine the nature of the securities. 8. Where the subject of litigation is immoveable property, and the judgement appealed from shall not affect the occupancy, security is not to be required; but if the judgement do affect the occupancy, then the security shall not be of greater amount than to restore the property, and the intermediate profit accruing from the occupancy, pending the appeal. 9. Where the subject of litigation consists of chattels or personal property, the security shall, in all cases, be a bond to the amount, or mortgage. 10. The security for prosecution of appeal and for costs, shall in no case exceed 300*l*. 11. The security must be completed within three months from the date of the petition of leave to appeal. 12. Any person feeling aggrieved by any order respecting security or appeal, may petition the Privy Council.

The same laws are administered in the District Courts as in the Supreme Court,—namely the Dutch, (or Roman law with certain exceptions.)

A prisoner can only be tried in the supreme court, upon the prosecution of the king's advocate, he has the right of challenge to the jury before whom he is to be arraigned, he is entitled on his trial to the assistance of an eminent proctor or barrister, *paid by the government* (an admirable provision) and the witnesses on both sides, in criminal cases before the supreme court, are also paid by the government.

Police.—Crimes, except in some of the maritime provinces where the drinking of arrack leads to every species of vice, are in general rare, and the Singalese being in the aggregate a quiet, docile people, petty litigation (owing to the extended division of property) usurps the place of passion and its

attendant results. Owing to the peculiar constitution of the village communities, each of which has its "Headman" and subordinate officers, and peons or constables; the commission of an offence is speedily followed by detection; among the principal offences are ear and nose slitting and the mutilation of the limbs, for the purpose of carrying off the gold and precious stones with which women and children are adorned: violent murders are more rare than poisonings, the latter mode of revenge being more suited to a timid people. In the Kandyan provinces crime is very unfrequent, and the village police excellent.

MILITARY.—The regular armed force maintained in the island consists at present of four King's regiments of infantry (the head-quarters of which are stationed at Colombo, Kandy and Trincomalee), two companies of the Royal Foot Artillery, a mounted body-guard for the Governor, and the 1st Ceylon regiment, composed principally of Malays, nearly 2,000 strong, and one of the finest regiments in His Majesty's service. I have never seen any native troops on the continent of India to equal the 1st Ceylon light infantry, either in appearance or manœuvring, and their conduct during the Kandyan war proved them to be inferior to no light infantry in the world. Their dress is dark green, and their arms a compact rifle, with a short strong sword attachable instead of a bayonet. They are native officered, as in the E. I. C.'s sepoy regiments, with European officers to each of the 16 companies, and their fidelity to their leaders has been evinced in every possible manner whenever an opportunity presented itself. I have seen many regiments of different nations under arms, but none ever offered to my view such a striking *coup d'œil* as H. M.'s 1st Ceylon rifle regiment.

The general as well as military reader will be gratified by the following account of military allowances, expenses, amusements, and annoyances, as detailed in a letter from Ceylon dated July, 1833:—

'The barracks in Colombo fort are small detached ones, not holding more than a co...pany, built by the Dutch so immediately under the ramparts as to exclude

the breeze which is so necessary in this climate. The mortality occasioned last year by the cholera has attracted the attention of government to the accommodation of the troops, and measures are now in progress that will add considerably to their comforts. The hospital is not good, the wards are not sufficient to allow a classification of the diseases, and there is not a proper place for convalescents. The officers hire houses in the fort; they seldom contain more than four rooms, with accommodation for servants. Bath and stabling, and very good quarters, may be got for 2*l.* 5*s.* per month, in some situations for 1*l.* 10*s.*; in the principal street, where the houses are very superior, 3*l.* 15*s.* to 6*l.* is paid. Officers find their own furniture, but that is of little importance where all the articles for comfort or luxury are to be bought on terms that would astonish a London upholsterer. Six arm-chairs, with rattanned seats, cost about 2*l.* 5*s.*; a pair of couches, 2*l* ; tables, varying from 10*s.* upwards, but a good one to dine four, may be purchased for that price; they are all made of jack wood, which is handsome, and takes a high polish. No European servants are allowed, two natives are sufficient for a bachelor,—a head servant at 1*l.* a month, a boy at 9*s.*; if you keep a horse, a servant to attend him, and accompany his master on foot when he goes out, will cost 15*s.* a month. They support and clothe themselves. To meet these extra expenses the island allowance monthly is, for a lieutenant-colonel, 32*l.*; a major, 23*l.*; a captain 13*l.* 16*s.*; a lieutenant, 8*l.* 5*s.* an ensign, 6*l.*; a surgeon, 17*l.*; assistant-surgeon, 10*l.*; quarter-master and adjutant, 10*l.*; 5*l.* extra is allowed for the commandants of corps. This is to cover all expenses of house rent, servants, fuel, candles, and marching money. The allowance of the subs should be 40*l.*, to enable them to meet the extra expenses they are put to by those who are paid more liberally. Messing is about 2*s.* a day, but 6*d.* more may be added for contingent expenses. The dinners, particularly in Colombo, are good;—every variety of poultry, excellent fish, venison and game, are to be bought reasonable. Madeira and light French claret are the usual wines, and are drunk at 3*s.* a bottle. Sherry is getting much in vogue, but many of the messes on stranger-days sport champagne, hock, and Carbonnel's or Sneyd's best claret, to the great detriment of the finances of the junior members. The duty in Colombo is a subaltern's guard. The captains assist the field-officers in doing the garrison duty. There is a garrison field-day every Monday morning, and regimental parades once a day. The society of Colombo is composed of the families of the military and the gentlemen holding the civil situations under Government. It is sociable and agreeable; there are numerous private parties, and a public ball once a month; the messes frequently invite their friends to evening parties. The style of living is good, and combines more both of comfort and luxury than is usually found in the same class of society in Europe.

'There is a subscription library, supplied with a large assortment of newspapers and every publication of interest, and standard works. Each regiment (Colombo is the head-quarters of two European regiments) has its own billiard-table; it is very rare indeed to hear of high play at them: they are a source of amusement in a place where the heat will not admit of exposure during the day, and, as it is unattended with expense, has not been productive of evil consequence.'

REVENUE.—The gross aggregate revenue of Ceylon has

for some years averaged somewhat more than 330,000*l.* per annum, but from the great expenses attending the realization of some of the principal branches of revenue, and from the changes which are now taking place (the cinnamon monopoly, for instance, being abolished) it is difficult to state the net or even precise revenue of the last year, it may be averaged, however at *five shillings* a head per annum.

THE FOLLOWING ITEMS FORMED THE REVENUE OF CEYLON FOR 1832.

Land Rents	21,300	Premium on Bills	3,976
Cinnamon	147,549	Post Offices	1,549
Salt	24,653	Stud of Horses' Sale	508
Pearl Fishing	3,887	Auction Duty	215
Fish Rents	6,986	Interest of various Monies	2,740
Licences	29,179	Tribute from Wedderate	104
Sea Customs	65,176	Sale of Government Gazette	437
Land ditto	4,176	Sundries	1,000
Lands and Houses	195	Receipts in aid of Revenue	25,234
Steam Engine	1,127	Arrears of Revenue in former years	12,346
Stamps	2,729		
Judicial Receipts	10,461		
Fines and Forfeitures	979		
Commutation Tax	3,008		

Making an aggregate income of £370,000.

The land assessment is trifling as regards the receipts of treasury, and collected under a bad system, namely, in kind, and from speculators who farm it out from the Government. The grain, when collected by Government, is stored for the use of the troops and for sale; every attempt at a permanent settlement on the land has hitherto failed, and owing to the quantity of waste land, and that held only by service tenure, the difficulties in the way of such a desirable measure have hitherto been found impracticable.

In the land-rents are included the duties levied on cocoa-nut trees, and it affords a singular view of the importance of that palm to the people, when we find that while the tax on rice-lands does not yield a larger revenue than 21,000*l.*, the revenue derived from the cocoa-nut tree amounts to 35,573*l.**

* Schedule of duties levied on cocoa-nut plantations:—

Distilling of arrack	£3,644	Exports of jaghery	£162.
Retail of ditto	24,975	Ditto of copperas	1,539.
Export of ditto	3,136	Ditto of cocoa nuts	1,551.
Ditto of coira or rope	153	Ditto of cocoa-nut oil	413.

The revenue on cinnamon is in future to be collected on the export, instead of as heretofore on a monopoly of the sale.* The *fish rents* are raised by a duty (generally of one-tenth) on all fish caught; the farm of each station is annually sold. The duty as levied is exceedingly vexatious, and it would indeed be desirable to raise an equal amount of revenue by some less objectionable means; for instance, by a system of licenses for boats or fishers, or, if possible, to do away with so heavy a tax on the subsistence of the people. The revenue from the pearl fishery in the Gulf of Manaar is extremely precarious; the average amount of revenue for the last 32 years is 14,662*l.* per annum. The fishery of 1829 realized a profit to the Government of 39,000*l.*; but the speculators who farmed it from the Government sustained a loss, the produce of the oysters being extremely various according to the season. Chanks, or sea-shells, which the Hindoos use as bangles, or ornaments, for the wrists and ancles, are also monopolized by the Government, and farmed out often to the pearl fishery farmers, as the divers for the latter answer for the former; in 1816, the chank fishery produced 6,700*l.*, it has now declined to 37*l.* per annum. The gross revenue derived from the sale of salt is 27,781*l.* per annum; the profit of the Government (for whom salt is made partly by voluntary, partly by compulsory labour, and in some cases by debtors, who have *sold their service for life* to the owners of the salt pans, in consideration of 25 or 30 rix dollars—1*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* or 2*l.* 5*s.*!) on the sale of salt varies in the different districts from 800 to 1,000 per cent. on the coast and collecting it; the amount of contingent expenses incurred on account of it exceeds 4,000*l.* per annum, and with the establishment constitute a charge of 20 or 25 per cent. on the gross

* The notice for abolishing the cinnamon monopoly is given in the Ceylon Government Gazette, 9th March, 1833; after 10th July, the general export of cinnamon was permitted from the ports of Colombo and Galle, on payment of a duty of 3*s.* per lb. on every sort without distinction. All restrictions against the cultivation, sale, or possession of cinnamon by private individuals of course has ceased.

revenue. Colonel Colebrook's report on the salt monopoly shews it to be most injurious in its operation on the morals, health, and commerce of the people; it is to be hoped that his suggestion for reducing the monopoly price, permitting the collection of salt by the people for exportation, and also for the curing and preservation of fish, will be attended to. No excise system could be possibly more destructive to a country than the mode in which the salt revenue is collected in Ceylon. Want of space forbids me here entering on it.

Sea customs, it will be perceived, form, next to cinnamon, the largest items of revenue;—63,667*l.* per annum, of which 43,169*l.* are levied on goods imported, and 20,498*l.* are produced, exported, or carried coastwise. Of the *export* duties of the year 1829, amounting to 21,021*l.*, there was levied on arrack 3,842*l.*, and on other productions of the cocoa-nut tree 3,047*l.* on tobacco 7,192*l.*, and on areka nuts 5,456*l.* Of the *import* duties of the same year, amounting to 44,815*l.*, there was levied on grain 17,042*l.*, and on cotton cloth 17,146*l.*, being together more than three-fourths of the whole amount. The duty on British cottons is 5 per cent. ad valorem, and on India cottons by tariff from 8 to 25 per cent. The progressive abolition of the export duties would materially improve the agriculture and commerce of this island.

The harbour duties levied in the principal ports are chiefly derived from fees on port clearances, &c. but the charges on shipping, as well as on goods exported, is too high if the prosperity of the island be desired. The stamp duties are one of the largest branches of internal revenue. The collection of stamps and fees in the provincial and magistrates' Courts amount to 9,155*l.* per annum, and the stamps sold for general purposes to 3,198. There is an auction duty of 3 per cent. on *moveable* property, which yields but 232*l.* per annum; on the sale of immoveable property there is a stamp duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The judicial fines and forfeitures produce 1,338*l.*, and the toll on bridges, canals, and ferries 4,114*l.* per annum. The stamps on petitions to the Government should certainly be repealed.

The capitation tax of 1*s.* 6*d.* per head, though ceased to be levied in the Cingalese districts, owing to its great unpopularity, is still levied in the Malabar districts as a commutation for other personal taxes formerly levied—viz. a tax on toddy drawers, a tax for post carriers, a tax on the wearing of jewels, and other native ornaments, which in the year 1800, were generally imposed throughout the country. The annual revenue on spirits is, for distilling arrack 3,645*l.*, and for retail sale of ditto 24,975*l.* The revenue derived for licensing gambling-houses (446*l.*) will, it is to be hoped, be abolished, as also the licenses for honorary ceremonies of the natives, tending as they do to perpetuate caste (319*l.*), the privilege of collecting precious stones (revenue 73*l.*), and of gleaning pearls from the sands after a pearl fishery (revenue 40*l.*), are too trifling and too contemptible to need comment. The nominal revenue derived from the sale of horses bred by government, Delf Island (768*l.*) per annum, is unworthy consideration, as the cost of their production is upwards of 1,000*l.* a year. The amount realised by government by the sale of elephants has not lately exceeded 61*l.* per annum, and the amount produced by the sale of tusks, is 37*l.* per annum. The Wedderati tribute of 78*l.* per annum, is derived from an annual tribute of wax, &c. from the 'Weddahs' or 'Beddas' wild tribes, inhabiting the forests of the interior. The premium upon bills drawn by the Colonial Government upon its agent in London amounting to 4,800*l.* a year is included in the colonial receipts, though it can scarcely be considered a source of revenue. As the whole of the revenue system of Ceylon is now under the consideration and modification of the government, it would be unnecessary to particularize further.

Expenditure.—From the time of our acquisition of this island, its revenue has been inadequate to meet the expenditure, whether wisely or unnecessarily incurred. Certainly much of the expenditure arose from causes which now cease to operate—namely, internal war with the Kandyans, and, in consequences of hostilities in Europe or British India: even

at this moment, a larger military force is kept up at Ceylon than is required for the mere protection of the island, in consequence of its being the Malta or Gibraltar of our eastern possessions. The following abstract was laid before the finance committee of parliament in 1828.

Net Revenue and Expenditure of Ceylon for Fourteen Years.

Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.	Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.
	£	£	£		£	£	£
1811	301,758	411,249	109,491	1818	359,595	454,496	94,901
1812	271,210	370,301	99,091	1819	342,375	478,940	136,565
1813	320,806	491,776	170,070	1820	404,123	476,054	71,931
1814	352,416	409,369	56,953	1821	370,497	410,126	39,629
1815	376,757	511,434	134,677	1822	313,142	369,038	55,896
1816	344,846	450,502	105,656	1823	286,862	404,480	117,618
1817	340,020	416,491	76,471	1824	297,945	393,548	95,603
	2,277,813	3,061,122	750,409		2,374,539	2,986,682	612,143

We perceive from the foregoing, that notwithstanding the heavy expenses incurred by the Kandyan war, and the necessity for occupying a large extent of the interior, which, for several years could not be expected to meet the charges requisite for its maintenance and peace; yet the excess of expenditure in the latter years had considerably diminished; but a more agreeable prospect of the finances of the colony is presented to us in the Ceylon Almanac for 1834, which gives the revenue and expenditure from 1821 to 1832, thus—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.	Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.
	£	£	£	£		£	£	£	£
1821	459,699	481,854	..	22,155	1827	264,785	411,648	..	146,913
1822	473,669	458,346	15,328	..	1828	305,712	339,516	..	38,894
1823	355,406	476,242	..	120,836	1829	389,534	344,757	44,777	..
1824	387,259	441,592	..	54,333	1830	403,475	347,029	56,446	..
1825	355,320	495,529	..	140,209	1831	420,170	356,565	73,605	..
1826	278,358	394,229	..	115,879	1832	369,437	338,100	31,337	..
Total	2,209,711	2,747,792	15,328	453,412	Total	2,153,113	2,137,615	206,165	185,807

In 1832, the principal items of expenditure of the colony were:—

Civil Charges.—ordinary, 44,233*l.*; extraordinary, 41,727*l.* Judicial, ordinary, 26,604*l.*; extraordinary, 9,125*l.* Revenue,* ordinary, 31,165*l.*; extraordinary, 32,270*l.* Miscellaneous, 1,582.—Total Civil Revenue and Judicial, 186,696*l.*; (exclusive of arrears of past years.)

Military Expenditure.—Pay and Allowances to European and native troops, 45,959*l.* Do. Staff, 18,903*l.*; Do. Engineer's department, 66,973*l.* Extra for Contingent Charges, 5,672*l.*

Commissariat.—Provisions, 25,255*l.*; Barracks, 1,290*l.*; Engineers, 3,736*l.*; Contingencies, 5,778.—Total Commissariat, 36,059.

The charges for the 1st Ceylon Light Infantry (1600 rank and file, and 1823 strong) as voted in the army estimates for 1835-36, are—pay and daily allowances, 33,974*l.*; annual allowances to officers, &c. 624*l.*; clothing, 1,500*l.*;—total, 36,098*l.* There is also a charge for the Ceylon invalids (the remnant of disbanded corps, rank and file 153, and 165 strong) of 1,959*l.* The staff charges in the Army estimates, in the same year, under the head of Ceylon are—*General Staff*, 1,737*l.*; *Medical*, 1,967*l.*;—Total, 3,704*l.* There is no garrison charge. The Ordnance estimates for 1833-34 give the following for Ceylon:—*Ordinary* 2,268*l.*; *Extraordinary*, 3,614.

Fixed Establishment in Ceylon, 4,196*l.*; Contingent Expenses, 21,176*l.* Insurance, 2,989*l.*; London Charges, 10,776*l.*; Freight to London, 3,164*l.* Total, 42,300*l.*

Total Military Expenditure, 108,705*l.*—Total Civil ditto, 184,696*l.*

To the foregoing is to be added the Agent's expenses in England,† 27,735*l.*; Military Arrears of former years, 5,734*l* ;—making a grand total of for 1832, 328,860*l.*

A return to the House of Commons, dated 26th April, 1833, gives under Ceylon (in the Army Colonial disbursements)—*Ordinary*, 78,502*l.*; *Extraordinary*, 18,158*l.*—total; 96,660*l.*, with an addition of 150*l.* colonial establishments'

* The ordinary expense of the *revenue* department is thus stated by Colonel Colebrooke:—Commissioner of Revenue, 4,235*l.*; Collectors of Revenue, 23,243*l.*; Collectors of Maritime Districts (1,000*l.* to 1,500*l.*) 20,243*l.*; Revenue Commissioner of Kandy, 3,118*l.*; Government Agents of Kandyan Provinces, 5,839*l.*; Fixed and unfixed Contingencies, 6,910*l.*—Total, 40,415*l.*

† Estimate of Colonial Agent's expenditure in England for 1832:—Civil Fund, 11,800*l.*; Judge's Pension, 4,200*l.*; Board of Colonial Audit, 2,500*l.*; Agent's Salary and Establishment, 1,150*l.*; Stores, Supplies, and Contingencies, 8,085*l.*;—Total 27,735*l.*

expenses; and by another Parliamentary return of the military and naval disbursements, defrayed from the several military chests in the Colonies, Ceylon is marked down at 96,818*l.*, the military expenditure, may, therefore, be taken at 100,000*l.* a year.

Mr. Cameron, the late commissioner of inquiry, at Ceylon, thus detailed the judicial expenditure for about 1,000,000 people.

Supreme Court. . .	13,030	Provincial Courts .	8,987
Magistrates . . .	6,008	Judicial Comm. Kandy .	2,443
Independent Agent Kurnegalle	272	Magistrate ditto . .	345
Agents of Government (half)	2,919	Contingencies fixed .	538
Circuits of Supreme Courts	872	Ditto unfixed . . .	831

Total Expenses 36,245*l.* per annum.

Under a recent revision of the government offices and retrenchment, the following scale of salaries has been established:—

Civil Offices, of the yearly value of 300*l. and above.*—Governor 7,000*l.*; Colonial Secretary, 2,000*l.*; Assistant ditto, and Clerk to the Executive and Legislative Councils, 600*l.*; Treasurer and Commissioner of Stamps, 1,500*l.*; Auditor General, and Comptroller of Revenue, 1,500*l.*; Civil Engineer and Surveyor General, 800*l.*; Postmaster General, 300*l.*; Harbour Master at Colombo, 700*l.*; Ditto Galle, 500*l.*; Collector of Customs, 1,000*l.*; Government Agent at Colombo, 1,200*l.*; Assistant Do. at Do. 300*l.*; Do. Do. at Caltura, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Galle, 1,000*l.*; Assistant to Do. at Matura, 400*l.*; Do. at Batticaloa, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Trincomalee, 1,000*l.*; Do. at Jaffna, 1,200*l.*; Assistant Do. at Do. 300*l.*; Do. at Manaar, 400*l.*; Do. at Chilaw, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Kandy, 1,200*l.*; Assistant Do. at Kurunegalle, 400*l.*; Do. at Ratnapoora, 400*l.*;—24,900*l.* Being an average decrease of 22,33 per cent. upon the existing establishments, and 38,87 per cent. including the offices established.

Civil Offices of the yearly value of 500*l. and under, per annum.*—Superintendant General of Vaccination, 450*l*; Five Assistants at 90*l.* each, 450*l.*; Harbour Master of Trincomalee, 400*l.*; Assistant Engineer and Surveyor, 300*l.*; Superintendant of the Botanical Gardens, 250*l.*; Supervisor of the Pearl Banks, 500*l.*; Assistant Agent at Badulla, 400*l.*; Do. Alipoot, 400*l.*; Do. Ruanwelle, 400*l.*; Do. Matelle, 400*l.*; Do. Fort King, 400*l.*; Do. Madawalatenne, 400*l.*—4,750; being an average increase of 14,63 per cent. (exclusive of the six last mentioned officers.)

Judicial Offices of the yearly value of 500l., and above.—Chief Justice, 2,500*l.*; Senior Puisne Do., 1,500*l.*; King's Advocate, 1,200*l.*; Deputy Do. 1,000*l.*; Registrar of the Supreme Court, 600*l.*; District Judge of Colombo, 1,000*l.*; Do. Galle, 1,000*l.*; Do. Trincomalee, 1,000*l.*; Do. Jaffna, 1,000*l.*; Do. Chilaw and Putlam, 500*l.*; Do. Kandy, 1,000*l.*; Do. Ratnapoora, 150*l* ;—Total, 12,450*l.*; being an average decrease of 29,66 per cent.

Judicial Offices under 500l. per annum —Fiscal of the Western Province, 350*l.*; Private Secretary to the Chief Justice, 270*l.*; Do. Senior Puisne Do 180*l.*; District Judge of Batticaloa, 250*l.*; Do. Manaar, 200*l.*; Sitting Magistrates of Caltura, 135*l.*; Do. Pantura, 225*l.*; Do. Negombo, 225*l.*; Do. Amblangodde, 225*l.*; Do. Matura, 225*l.*; Do. Hambantotte, 135*l.*; Do. Mulletivoe, 225*l.*; Do. Point Pedro, 157*l.*; Do. Mallagam, 225*l.*; Do. Kaits, 157*l.*; Do. Chavagacherry 225*l.*; Do. Kurnegalle, 150*l.*; Do. Badulla, 150*l.*; Do. Alipoot, 150*l.*; Do. Ruanwelle, 150*l.*; Do. Matele, 150*l.*; Fort King, 150*l.* Nuwera Ellia, 150*l.*—4,460*l.* Being an increase of 26,76 per cent. (exclusive of the seven last mentioned offices.)

OFFICES NEWLY CREATED.—*Civil.*—Assistant Agent at Negombo, 400*l.*; Do. at Galle, 300*l.*; Do. at Hambantotte, 400*l.*; Do. at Kandy, 300*l.*

Judicial.—Second Puisne Justice, 1,500*l.*; Private Secretary to Do., 180*l.*; District Judge of Nuwera Ellia, 150*l.*

Ecclesiastical.—College Professor (deferred), 300*l.*——Total, £3,530.

These salaries are not high, compared with those of the other functionaries of the island, nor in reference to the tropical nature of the climate, and the necessity of paying dignitaries vested with high authority, salaries placing them above the reach of temptation, for no policy can be more short-sighted than inadequately remunerating the servants of the State. When the Dutch had Ceylon, for instance, the salaries of their officers from the Governor downwards, were not one-fifth of our servants, but amends were made by the former plundering the people in every possible shape, and by the institution of trading monopolies in the hands of Government, from the melancholy effects of which the island is still suffering.*

* By an important document presented to Parliament near the close of the last Session, shewing a reduction in Colonial expenditure, prospective and immediate, Ceylon is thus therein noted down—*Charge when reduction commenced*, £190,570; *immediate saving*, £30,732; *prospective saving*, £27,378; *Total retrenchment*, £58,110.

There is a civil pension fund in Ceylon, by the rules of which the subscribers are entitled to pensions after 12 years actual service and subscription; the amount of pension being regulated according to the salary received by the officer during the last two years previous to his retirement: the pensions now paid by the fund amount to 12,000*l.* a year;—it would be well if Great Britain had a similar institution, or institutions, for the different departments of the service, by which the future dead weight of the expenditure would be materially relieved, and it would be most desirable that every colony had a pension fund formed after the plan of Ceylon.

EDUCATION.—*Government and other schools*—The Government schools are in number about 100, of which the far greater part are in the Singalese or maritime districts; they were originally established by the Dutch,* and, according to

* According to Baldæus, when the Dutch obtained possession of this island, they pursued the plan of enlightening its inhabitants by education, as a means of Christianizing the natives. The following most interesting statement of the churches and schools established in Jaffnapatam and Manaar in Ceylon, is given by Baldæus, in his account of Malabar and Ceylon, printed at Amsterdam, in 1672:—

Jelipole, August, 1658, church established.

January 12th, 1661, sacrament first administered to 12 communicants of the natives.

1665. 1,000 scholars, 2,000 auditors; *Mallagam*, 200 scholars, 600 auditors; *Mayletti*, 750 scholars, 1,600 auditors; *Achiavelli*, 500 scholars, 2,000 auditors; *Oudewill*, 600 scholars, 1,000 auditors; *Batecotte*, 900 scholars, 2,000 auditors; *Paneteripore*, 600 scholars, 1,300 auditors; *Changane*, 700 scholars, church filled; *Manipay*, 560 scholars, 700 auditors; *Yanarpone*, 200 scholars, 600 auditors; *Nalour*, 590 scholars (the people here still incline to Paganism); *Sundecouli*, 450 scholars, 400 auditors.

Thus far of the Province Belligame and its churches, unto which belong *Copay* and *Pontour*, containing about 800 scholars and 2,000 souls.

The second Province of Jaffnapatam is Tenmarache, containing five churches and the villages thereto belonging:—

1st, *Navacouli*, 400 scholars, 800 auditors; *Chavagatzery*, 1,000 scholars, 2,500 auditors; *Cathay*, 550 scholars, 1,200 auditors; *Haranni*, 800 scholars, 2,500 auditors; *Illondi Matual*, 650 scholars, 1,200 auditors.

The third Province is called Waddemarache, having three churches:—

Col. Colebrooke's report, the numbers educated have been as follows:—

Protestants -	83,756	Mahomedans -	14,847
Roman Catholics,	38,155	Boodhists - -	78,602
Total -	121,911	Total -	93,449

The expenditure amounts to about 3,600*l.* per annum; and it is to be hoped it will be extended to the Malabar and Kandyan districts. The schoolmasters receive a small stipend of 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum, and they derive further emolument from fees received for registering native marriages, a duty which the Government are very properly careful in attending to.

The following return for 1831 gives the statistics of the state of education, of the churches, chapels, and goals in Ceylon.

EDUCATION.					CHURCHES AND CHAPELS.				
Year.	Number of Schools.	Public or Free Schools. Scholars. Male.	Female.	Total.	Expense of Schools.	Number of Places of Worship.	Number of Persons they are capable of containing.	Number of Persons who usually attend.	Expense of the Establishment.
1831	356	12971	1728	14699	£. 3885	369	118800	63923	£. 8548

GAOLS.														
Number of Prisons.	No. of Prisoners they are capable of containing.	Number of Persons confined for Debt. Male.	Fem.	Number confined for Misdemeanours. Male.	Fem.	Number confined for Felonies. Male.	Fem.	Total Number of Criminals. Male.	Fem.	Total Number of Prisoners. Male.	Fem.	No. of Prisoners kept at Hard Labour.	No. of Prisoners Unemployed.	Cases of Sickness during the Year.	No. of Deaths in the Year.
17	1763	69	2	220	38	639	16	869	54	1070	56	880	235	285	14

1st, *Catavelli*, 600 scholars, 1,200 auditors; *Ureputti*, 690 scholars; 900 auditors; *Paretilure*, 1,000 scholars, 3,000 auditors.

The last and furthermost Province called Palchiarapalle has four churches and as many schools:—

1st, *Poelepolay*, 300 scholars, 600 auditors; *Mogommale*, 450 scholars, 500 auditors; *Jumbamme*, 500 scholars, 900 auditors; *Mulipatto*, 215 scholars, 350 auditors.

Several of these schools continue; others have been discontinued, or have merged in similar establishments formed in their neighbourhood.

A more detailed account of the present state and progress of education is afforded by the following tabular view of schools in 1831, separated into stations and establishments, &c. The number of missionary institutions (among which those of the American missionaries are highly deserving commendation) will be examined with much gratification.

Return of the number of Schools in Ceylon in 1831.

Districts.	Divisions.	No. of Government Schools.	No. of Missionary Schools.				Private Schools.	Total Number.	Of the foregoing under Roman Catholic Clergy.*	R. C. Missionaries
			Church Mission.	Wesleyan.	American.	Baptist.				
Colombo	4 Gravets of Colombo	7	13	35	..	16	419	537	36	2
	Aloetkoer Korle	10								1
	Salpitte Korle	7								
	Hina Korle	5								1
	Hapitigam Korle	1								1
	Hewagam Korle	5								
	Raygam Korle	9								1
	Pasdaem Korle	7								
	Walalawitty Korle	3								1
Pt. de Galle	4 Gravets of Galle	2	14	10	..	..	3	47	1	
	Walalawitty Korle	4								
	Gangebodde Pattoo	4								1
	Talpe Pattoo	5								
	Wellabodde Pattoo	5								1
Matura	4 Gravets of Matura	2	..	12	..	..	..	31	..	1
	Belligam Korle	7								
	Moruwa Korle	1								
	Girreway Pattoo	4								
	Gangebodde Pattoo	5								
	Batticaloa	1	..	4	..	..	2	7	..	1
	Trincomalee	2	..	6	..	..	4	12	2	1
	Jaffna	1	19	12	100	..	138	270	20	1
	Manaar	..	..	1	..	..	28	29	3	1
Chilaw	Chilaw	1	..	..	..	..	56	58	1	1
	Calpentyn	1								
	Delft	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1
	Total....	99	46	80	100	16	649	1,039	63	
Kandyan Provinces	Kandy, &c.	..	10	..	..	..	..	10	..	1
	Kornegalle, &c.	..	..	6	..	..	..	6	..	
	Grand Total....	99	56	86	100	16	649	1,055	..	17

CHURCH MISSION,—(Schools established in 1818, and occupying four stations), has schools 53, containing 1,554 boys, 254 girls, and 61 adults—total 1,869; employs 83 native teachers and assistants, and has printing and bookbinding establishments at Cotta and Nellore: the number of boys in the Cotta institution is 16, of whom 11 are Singalese, and five Tamulians.

* Included in the Private Schools.

Wesleyan Mission, established in 1814, and occupying seven stations, has 65 schools in Singalese, or southern, and 21 in Tamul, or northern, districts, thus:—

SINGALESE.					TAMULIANS.		
	Schools.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Schools.	Scholars.
Colombo	7	384	29	413	Jaffna	6	238
Negombo	12	376	83	459	Point Pedro..	5	401
Seven Korles	6	152	4	156	Trincomalee	4	110
Caltura	16	806	111	917	Batticaloa ..	6	189
Galle	11	514	124	638			
Matura	13	548	35	583	Total	21	938
Morawa.....	1	30	..	30			
Total	65	2810	386	3196			

The return for 1832 shews, in the S. Ceylon district an aggregate of 69 schools, with 2,896 boys, 427 girls, and 104 male and female teachers; in addition to which, the Wesleyans employ 15 salaried catechists, who assist in the superintendence of the schools, and conduct public worship on the sabbath days. The Mission has a printing establishment and two presses at Colombo since its formation.

American Mission, has five stations and a high school, or college, at Batticaloa, containing 10 students in Christian theology, and 110 students in English and the elements of sciences; and 22 in Tamul; all on the charity foundation: besides six day scholars. A female central school at Oodooville, with 52 girls on the foundation, and 76 native free schools with 2,200 boys and 400 girls.

Baptist Mission, instituted in 1812, has two stations and 16 schools, containing about 800 children, instructed in English, Portuguese, Tamul, and Singalese, by 20 teachers: four are female schools; the annual expense of this mission (160*l.* per annum) is almost exclusively borne by the Parent Society in England.

Roman Catholic Mission, established in 1687, occupies 12 stations, presided over by 12 pastors: of its schools or progress I could learn no information, either in Ceylon or in England.

The Press.—Little can yet be said on this important subject; until lately there was only a Government Gazette in

the island; now, however, a *Colombo Observer* has been added, which is, I trust, but the prelude to other journals.

COMMERCE.

The trade, internal and maritime of this rich and beautiful island, has been materially checked by the pernicious system of Government monopolies, introduced originally by the Dutch governors, to enable them to make up the deficient salaries allotted them by the Home Government; that system is now, however, in the course of total abolition; and Ceylon will doubtless again resume that position among the commercial emporiums of the East, for which Nature seems so admirably to have fitted her. There are no documents at the London Custom House to shew the extent and value of the trade of this island, as given in my other volumes. The greater part of the following returns I obtained in manuscript from the Colonial Office. I proceed, therefore, to shew—1st, the shipping employed in the trade of Ceylon (it has no tonnage of its own worth mentioning); 2nd, *value* of the commerce carried on; and, 3rd, the nature and quantity of the staple exports of the island.

Shipping, Inwards and Outwards, of Ceylon.

Years.	SHIPS INWARDS—FROM								SHIPS OUTWARDS—TO							
	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total Inwards.		Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total Outwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1825	7	2631	779	26316	9	2579	795	31526	8	3002	1643	54668	10	2489	1661	60159
1826	12	4609	1119	32765	53	5523	1264	42898	9	3525	1096	33122	53	3176	1158	39823
1827	6	2336	1552	57427	164	12009	1722	71772	10	4182	1475	58756	47	3999	1532	66937
1828	23	8756	1137	41682	154	9631	1314	60069	9	3551	1048	41890	38	3185	1095	48626
1829	13	4857	988	56826	156	8229	1157	69912	13	4869	1098	56936	36	2564	1147	64369
1830	11	3911	878	60157	169	12962	1058	77030	11	3769	1176	63494	47	2624	1234	69887
1831	7	2547	1044	48339	171	12847	1222	63833	7	2429	1040	53149	28	2256	1075	57834
1832	13	4603	1186	47911	212	13514	1411	66096	14	4768	1259	66742	32	1807	1305	73317
1833																
1834																
1835																

Imports and Exports of Ceylon.

Years.	IMPORTS FROM				EXPORTS TO			
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Imports.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Exports.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1825	23,440	264,499	3,362	296,301	97,537	122,956	3,895	224,388
1826	21,262	250,219	38,266	309,747	177,523	79,408	6,001	262,922
1827	16,866	299,974	26,535	343,389	233,452	82,946	2,225	317,693
1828	29,984	269,518	24,431	323,933	149,551	64,189	1,631	215,371
1829	39,299	272,654	28,256	340,209	196,558	88,256	1,330	286,144
1830	40,777	274,576	34,228	349,581	168,576	80,675	1,536	250,787
1831	28,599	227,150	27,278	282,988	59,905	60,504	740	152,293
1832	47,792	263,372	40,058	351,223	98,526	54,102	2,839	156,608
1833	60,812	229,932	30,145	320,891	42,403	55,100	2,966	132,529
1834								
1835								

Return of the quantities of Cocoa-nut Oil, Coffee, and Coir Rope, exported since 1827.

Years.	Cinnamon.	Cocoa-nut Oil.	Coffee.	Coir Rope.	Arrack.
	Bales.	Gallons.	cwts.	cwts.	Leaguers.
1827	45,289	84,588	16,008	6,775	3,188
1828	48,618	173,420	7,072	10,064	4,299
1829	25,081	126,491	20,033	9,198	4,428
1830	15,761	118,511	16,900	14,520	4,901
1831	80,800	98,803	23,683	7,804	
1832	82,600	137,721	38,127	12,695	
1833	77,530	112,671		4,928	3,256
1834					
1835					

Return of the Quantity of Grain, and estimated Value of Cloth, imported since 1825, distinguishing the Cloth from the Coast and from Great Britain.

Years.	Grain in Quantities.				Cloth in Value.	
	Rice.	Paddy.	Wheat.	Gram, and sundry dry Grains	From the Coast.	From Great Britain.
	Parrahs.	Parrahs.	Parrahs.	Parrahs.	£	£
1825	532,421	714,396	12,680	11,881	75,953	4,027
1826	592,244	696,109	30,629	9,965	106,163	3,207
1827	263,179	703,246	13,531	13,628	164,405	562
1828	492,712	535,844	19,416	10,145	143,096	4,656
1829	501,915	675,303	25,293	10,592	133,283	5,409
1830	667,295	946,484	25,423	10,588	117,911	5,948
1831	729,409	785,972	27,819	13,332	96,626	5,226
1832	803,767	958,312	33,255	8,805	97,055	13,520
1833	775,593	438,617	34,879	10,108	62,619	18,575
1834						
1835						

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The *Singalese,* or dry measure is 4 cut chundroons = 1 cut measure or seer; $\frac{4}{5}$ = 1 coornie; $2\frac{1}{12}$ = 1 marcal; 2 = 1 parrah; 8 = 1 amuconam, $9\frac{3}{8}$ = 1 last.

The internal measure of a *standard parrah* is a perfect cube of 11.57.100 inches: the *seer* is a perfect cylinder—depth 4.35 inches, diameter 4.35 inches; the weight of the parrah measure, according to the custom-house account is, for coffee, from 50 to 35 lbs.; pepper, 27 to 30 lbs.; salt 52 to 55 lbs.; Paddy (unhusked rice) 30 to 33 lbs.; rice 42 to 46 lbs.; the Candy or Bahar = 500 lbs. avoidupois, or 461 lbs. Dutch troy weight.

KANDYAN MEASURE OF SURFACE.—8 lahas = 1 coornie ($10\frac{15}{16}$; square perches) 10 = 1 peyla (2 square roods, 29 $\frac{5}{8}$ square perches) 4 = 1 ammonam (2 acres, 2 square roods, $37\frac{1}{2}$ square perches). But although the average extent of one *ammonam* is found to be 2 acres, 2 roods, and 2 perches; the measurement of land is not calculated from the specific area, but from the quantity of seed required to be sown on it, and consequently according to its fertility.

Weights of ozs. lbs. &c. are used also throughout the island, British standard. The bale of cinnamon consists of nearly $92\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

LIQUID MEASURE.—Gallons and their multiples and sub-multiples: 150 gallon = 1 *leaguer* or *legger*..

Monetary System.—The circulation of late is £. *s.* and *d.* as in England, and accounts are becoming more generally kept in the same: the rixdollar is equal to 1*s.* 6*d.*—it is divided into 12 fanams (a thick copper coin) and each fanam into 4 pice. There is a government bank at Colombo, but I can obtain no returns of its circulation or deposits; notes are issued by government, but no annual returns are published of the amount, nor is there any information within the reach of the Colonial Office in Downing Street, as to the real state of the paper and metallic circulation in the island. It is proposed to establish a private bank at Colombo, of which in-

deed the island stands much in need; saving banks is now in full operation.

It may readily be imagined how valuable the trade of this island may become under a freedom from restriction within, and justice in England on its products.* At present, its most valuable articles, sugar, coffee, tobacco, pepper, &c. labour under the same disadvantages in the English markets as those of India. The Cingalese might make cotton cloth enough for their own consumption, but the present legislature compels them to receive the steam wrought manufactures of Manchester and Glasgow at five per cent. *ad valorem* duty. While we put a duty on their sugar, when imported into England of *one hundred and fifty per cent.* On their coffee, *three hundred* per cent. On their pepper, *four hundred* per cent. On their arrack *one thousand* (!) and so on. Mr. Poulet Thompson's Custom Bill, in which the duty on several tropical articles have been materially reduced, is I trust the prelude to a sounder colonial commercial system.

GENERAL VIEW OF CEYLON.

The magnificent island inadequately described in the foregoing pages, and which language indeed would fail to do justice to, may not inaptly be termed the Malta of the Indian Ocean; its commercial Capital Colombo, is situate on the S. W. coast. lat 6.57. N. long. 80.0. E. defended by a strong fort (built on a peninsula projecting into the ocean) measuring *one mile and a quarter* in circumference, having seven principal bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains, and defended by *three hundred* pieces of cannon. The fortress is nearly insulated, two thirds of the work being almost laved by the sea, and with the exception of two very narrow and strongly guarded causeways, the remainder protected by a fresh water lake and a broad and deep ditch with

* Mr. Stuart has exerted himself much in England to obtain justice for Ceylon, and, as regards the cinnamon, he has been successful.

an extensive glacis. Four strong bastions are seaward, and three face the lake and command the narrow approach from the Pettah, or native town, outside the walls. The sea itself is additional strength for the fortress, for on the extensive southern side the surf runs so high on a rocky shore that any attempt at landing troops would be attended with certain destruction, and on the W. side where the sea is smoother the approach is completely commanded by the batteries; and a projecting rock on which two compact batteries are placed, entirely protect the roadstead:* in fact the fortress of Co-

* As it is my desire to render the '*History of the British Colonies*' useful to every navigator, I beg to subjoin the following sailing directions and remarks on the Port of Colombo, as drawn up by the present master attendant, J. Stuart, Esq.

Colombo, lat. 5.57 N., long. 80. E. is low near the sea, with some hills to the eastward, at a distance in the country. The high mountain having on it a sharp cone, called Adam's Peak, bears from Colombo E. 7° S. distance twelve and a half leagues; its height above the level of the sea is estimated at about 7,000 feet. When the atmosphere is clear it may be seen at 30 leagues. During the prevalence of the N. E. monsoon, Adam's Peak is generally visible in the morning, and frequently the whole of the day, but it is rarely seen in the S. W. monsoon, dense vapours generally prevailing over the island at this season. Ships approaching Colombo in the night have a brilliant light to direct them, which is exhibited every night from a lighthouse in the fort; the height of the light above the level of the sea is 97 feet, and may be seen in clear weather as far as the light appears above the horizon. A steep bank of coral about half a mile broad, with fifteen fathoms water on it, lies seven miles W. from Colombo, extending northwards towards Negombo, (when its surface is sand), and a few miles to the southward of Colombo; outside the bank the water deepens at once to 23 fathoms, and in two miles to 28 fathoms, greenish sand, which is not far from the edge of soundings. Within the bank there are 25 fathoms gradually shoaling towards the shore. The coast between Colombo and Negombo affords good anchorage, but the shore should not be approached under 8 fathoms; as within that depth the ground is in places foul; a bed of sunken rocks, called the Drunken Sailor, lies S. W. by W. ½ W. from Colombo lighthouse, distance 1,000 yards, the length of the ledge may be estimated at 100 yards, and the breadth 20 yards; on its north end, a small spot about the size of the hull of a 20 ton boat, is said to have only 3 feet water on it at low water, but during several recent visits, when some of the coral from its surface was

lombo properly defended may be deemed impregnable against any force likely to be brought against it.

brought up, there did not appear to be less than 7 feet 6 inches water on the shallowest part, on the other parts of the ledge there is 4, 5, and 6 fathoms. The sea breaks on the shallow part of these rocks almost constantly during the S. W. monsoon, but this is very seldom the case during the N.E. monsoon. There appears to be no doubt that the Drunken Sailor is granite, or stone of the same description as the rocks on the shore, with its surface incrustated with coral; if there ever was so little water as three feet on it, it may be supposed to be sinking. The Drunken Sailor should not be approached under nine fathoms during the night, as there are eight fathoms very near to it; and in its stream to the southward, in the N.E. monsoon of 1826, the Hon. Company's brig of war, *Thetis*, Captain Jerrel, touched on the Drunken Sailor, having stood too close to the land in beating up to the anchorage to the southward; but, with common attention to the depth of water approaching the rock, it may be easily avoided. The passage within the Drunken Sailor is clear, and some ships have sailed through; but no advantage can be gained by approaching the shore so very near at this point. The Drunken Sailor lies so very near the land, and so far to the southward of the anchorage on Colombo Road, as scarcely to form any impediment to ships bound to or from Colombo. The coast between Mount Lavinia and Colombo is bounded by a reef, lying off the mount about one-third of a mile, inclining to the shore as it approaches within a mile S. of Colombo fort. As there are six fathoms close to this reef, shipping should not approach this part of the coast in the night under nine fathoms, and may safely anchor when necessary.

The currents off Colombo are subject to considerable variations; but they are never so strong as to cause inconvenience to ships which may have to communicate with the shore in either monsoon, without coming to anchor. Colombo road affords good anchorage, free from foul ground, and is frequented at all seasons of the year. The best anchorage during the prevalence of the S.W. winds from April to October, is in from seven to eight fathoms with the lighthouse, bearing S. by E. ½ E., and the Dutch church E. by S. In the east monsoon, from November to April, it is more convenient to anchor in six and a half fathoms, with the lighthouse bearing S. half E., and the Dutch church E. S. E. Ships requiring pilots to conduct them to the anchorage, should make the usual signal: the charge for pilotage is fifteen shillings. The bar is a bank with seven feet of water on its shallowest part, the northern extremity being about 400 yards N.W. of the Custom House point; small vessels that draw less than 10 feet water ride within the bar protected from the S W. wind and sea. When the sea is high, it breaks with great force on the bar, and renders

TRINCOMALEE.—The maritime capital of the Island, (Colombo is the seat of Government) is, in a political point of view, of the most importance, not merely as regards Ceylon, but from being, as Nelson justly described it from personal knowledge, '*the finest harbour in the world.*' It is situate on the E. shore, lat 8.32. N. long. 81. 17. E. 150 N. E. from Colombo, (to which a fine road has just been opened) 128 miles, travelling distance from Kandy, and within *two* days sail of Madras.*

Its physical aspect may be described as a narrow neck of

the passage from the shipping to the outer road dangerous for small boats. The native boats generally pass out to the southward of the bar, close to the breakers on the rocky point of the Custom House; but as the passage is narrow, it should not be attempted by strangers when the sea breaks on the bar: it is better to proceed round to the northward of the bar, which may be easily distinguished by the breakers. What is strictly understood by a gale of wind, is a rare occurrence at Colombo; this may be owing to the vicinity of the equator, the strong gales which blow on the Malabar coast are felt in smart squalls, and a high sea, but there is scarcely wind to endanger vessels properly found in ground tackling; it is true, ships have sometimes required the aid of a second anchor, but in most cases, the cause has been attributable to some defect in the first anchor or cable, a light anchor, an anchor breaking, a short chain, or the chain coming unshackled. An instance occurred in Colombo road of two ships receiving cargo during the S.W. monsoon, whose chain cables came unshackled twice; twice did it occur to each ship.

On the 2d of June, 1831, the *Hector* drove in a squall, having about 80 fathoms of chain a head: they let go the second anchor; but finding the ship did not immediately bring up, they made sail and slipped their cables. This ship stood out of the anchorage under double-reefed fore and mizen top sails, and from its size, a single-reefed main top sail, fore sail, fore and main try sails, and driver, and returned to the anchorage on the 4th. Instances of ships putting to sea are rare; and it is considered, that although the sea is high the wind is not violent, and at these times, the rain having fallen in the interior, strong freshes escape to the S.W. from the Kalany Ganga, it is by no means surprising that Colombo road proves a safe anchorage.

* Trincomalee is the port of refuge to ships obliged to put to sea when the stormy monsoon commences on the Coromandel coast and western side of the bay of Bengal; the port can be made in any season.

land or isthmus, connecting the peninsula on which the fort of Trincomalee is built, (which juts out a considerable distance into the sea), to the main land; towards the W. this isthmus gradually expands itself into a plain of considerable extent, which is bounded on the S. E. by a ridge of lofty mountains, on the N. W. by low wooded hills, and on the W. at the distance of about a mile from the fort, by the inner harbour. As far as the eye can reach from the fort, excepting in the immediate neighbourhood of the bazaar, the country is covered with wood.

The scenery of the spot has been compared to Loch Katrine on a gigantic scale, (the vast harbour appearing land-locked) the grandeur of which cannot be surpassed; the fortifications sweep along the rocky coast upwards of a mile in length, encompassing the base of a steep hill on the sides connected with the adjacent land: the town and fort are placed at the bottom of a rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running out towards the sea and separating the inner harbours from two outside bays, which lie on either shore of a three sided or cornered promontory.

'Dutch' and 'Back' bays are entirely commanded by the artillery on the south and north side of the fortified rock, and the mouth of the harbour is protected by Fort Ostenburg, situate on a mount three miles west of Trincomalee. No communication can take place with the promontory (the part that projects into the sea being protected by steep rocky cliffs) except through the well-covered gates of the fortress, and the best engineers have pronounced their opinion of its impregnability if the place be well garrisoned.

Fort Frederick, where the European troops (consisting generally of four companies of a European regiment, a company of royal engineers and artillery, and detachments of the Ceylon rifles) are stationed, is a fortified neck of land projecting into the sea, separating Back Bay from Dutch Bay. The ground rises gradually from the glacis to the flag-staff, a height of about 300 feet, and then slopes towards the sea, till abruptly terminated by a perpendicular cliff, from which a

plummet may be dropped to the water, a distance of 240 feet. The depth at the base is so great, that a line-of-battle ship may pass close to it. None but military reside within the works. The prospect from the barracks towards the sea is only bounded by the horizon, whilst towards the land, the eye ranges over the splendid scenery of the inner harbour, fort Ostenberg, and a long extent of wooded country.

Fort Ostenberg is near three miles from Fort Frederick, and is built on the termination of a ridge of hills that partly form the boundary of the inner harbour. The fort commands the entrance, and its base is washed by the sea on three sides; it also protects the dock-yard, which is immediately below it. A detachment of Royal Artillery are quartered there, and a company of Europeans.

The vicinity of Trincomalee is a wild uncultivated country, abounding with game of all kinds, from a snipe to an elephant. Quail, jungle fowl, moose-deer, and monkeys, are found on the Fort Ostenberg ridge. The Mahavilla Ganga, which runs past Kandy, empties itself into the sea not far from Trincomalee. It has lately been surveyed by Mr. Brooks, the master attendant, who reports favourably of its capabilities. It is navigable for some distance, and he is of opinion, that with a little expense it might be made so to within 40 miles of Kandy, and thereby open a water-communication by which the coffee, timber, and other produce of the interior could be brought to the sea-coast.

The harbour, beautifully diversified with islands covered with a luxuriant vegetation, is spacious enough for holding all the ships in the world, accessible at all seasons, and the depth of water within the bay of Trincomalee is so great, that in many places, not far from the shore, it is unfathomable, and vessels may lie close alongside the rocks in perfect safety.*

* The rise and fall of tide is not sufficient for wet docks; mariners prefer Back Bay to Dutch Bay, and from its being easier of egress for one half the year. The rates of pilotage payable by all square rigged vessels, sloops and schooners, is—

Point de Galle is another strong fortress and excellent harbour, situate at the very southern extremity of the island, in Lat. 6.1 N. Long. 80.10 E. distant seventy-eight miles along the sea shore, S. S. E. from Colombo; the road, shaded the whole way by magnificent groups of cocoa nut trees, forming a belt from the water's edge to some distance inland. The fort is a mile and a quarter in circumference, on a low rocky promontory, commanding the narrow and intricate entrance leading to the inner harbour; the extensive and substantial works are like those of Colombo, surrounded for the greater part by the ocean, and there is every convenience of water, &c. capable of enabling the fortress to stand an extended siege. The outer and inner harbours are spacious,* and the inner secure at all seasons of the year.†

But if the sea-coast be well defended, not less so is the interior, every hill is a redoubt, and the passes in the mountains might be defended by a resolute enemy, by rolling the stones off the summits of the heights. Kandy (in 7.18 N.

Tons.	Back Bay.	Inner Harbour.
600 . .	£2 0 0	£4 0 0
400, and under 600	1 10 0	3 0 0
200, ditto 400	1 1 1	2 2 0
100, ditto 200	0 10 6	1 1 0
Under 100 . .	0 6 0	0 15 0

These rates of pilotage to all vessels going into the *inner* harbour, whether they make a signal for a pilot or not; but the pilotage charge for *Back Bay*, as in the same manner for Colombo, will only be made if the vessel make a signal and the pilot actually repair on board.

* The pilotage charges for Point De Galle Harbour to any vessel entering, whether making a signal for a pilot or otherwise, are—

600 tons	£3 0 0	400 and under 600	£2 5 0
200, and under 400 .	1 10 0	100, and under 200	1 2 6
Under 100 tons	15*s.* sterling.		

The fees or port clearances payable at Galle, as also at the other harbours of the island, are, for ships, sloops, or schooners;—

600 tons, and upwards	£8 0 0	400, and under 600	£5 10 0
200 ditto, and under 400	4 0 0	100, ditto 200	2 15 0
Under 100 tons . . .	£1 10 0		

† Both Monsoons here influence the winds and rains.

Lat. 80.47 E. Long.*) the capital of the interior (eighty-five miles from, and 1,600 feet above Colombo) is situate at the head of an extensive valley, in an amphitheatre commanded by forts on the surrounding hills; the vale has but two accessible entrances well guarded, and the city within four miles is nearly surrounded by a broad and rapid river, (the Maha-Villa Gunga) filled with alligators.

The roads in the maritime country are through groves of cocoa-nut trees along the sea coast; carriage roads extend from Colombo as far as Chilaw to the northward, and from Colombo through Gallee as far as Matura to the southward. The main road from Colombo to Kandy (the Simplon of the East on which there is now a '*mail coach and four*') is a work of stupendous magnitude, hills have been cut away, vallies filled up, and (near Kandy) a tunnel *five hundred feet long cut through the mountain*, while rapid and unfordable torrents and rivers have had elegant iron and wooden bridges†

* Latitude and Longitude of the principal Places:—Basses (Great) lat. 6.13.0; long. 81.46.0. Ditto, (Little) lat. 6.24.30; long. 81.55.0. Batticoloa Road, lat. 7.44.0; long. 81.52.0. Belligam Bay, lat. 5.57.30; long. 80.33.20. Calamatta Bay, lat. 6.47; long. 81.2.58. Colombo, lat. 6,57.0 long. 86.0.0. Dodandowé Bay, lat. 6.6.47; long. 80.14.24. Dondra Head, lat. 5.55.15; long. 80.42.50. Foul Point, lat. 8.30.27; long. 81.30.12 Galle, lat. 6.1.46; long. 80.20.0. Gandore, lat. 5.55.42; long. 80.44.30. Hambantolle, lat. 6.6.58; long. 81.14.44. Kandy, lat. 7.18.0; long. 80.49.0. Thahawelle Bay, lat. 5,59.30; long. 80.52.15. Thattura, lat. 5.56.26; long. 80 40.7. Nillewelle Bay, lat. 5.7.37; long. 80.50.21. Point Pedro, lat. 9.49.30; long. 80.24.0. Jangalle, lat. 6.1.16; long 80.54.48. Trincomalee, lat. 8.33.0; long. 81.24.0. Vendelo's Inlet, lat. 75.70; long. 81.44.0.

† Paradeinia bridge, which, during the past year has been thrown over the rapid and unfordable river Maha-Villa Gunga, consists of a single arch with a span of 205 feet, principally composed of satin wood; its height above the river at low water mark is 67 feet, and the roadway is 22 feet wide. The arch is composed of 4 treble ribs, transversely distant from each other five feet from centre to centre; the sum of the depth of these ribs is 4 feet, which, with two intervals of two feet each, makes the whole depth of the arch 8 feet; the arch beams, with the exception of those next the abutments, are 16 to 17 feet long and 12 inches thick, abutting

thrown across them, a capital road has been opened between Trincomalee and Colombo, and before a few more years have elapsed, every town in the island will be connected by roads passable at all seasons.

In fine, this rich and beautiful isle of spices—so thinly populated yet so capable of supporting twenty times its present population,—so impoverished yet so bountifully blessed by nature with every thing which can conduce to the happiness of man,—so admirably situate at the extremity of the Asiatic Peninsula, from which it is separated yet connected,—and so well adapted as an entrepôt for Eastern commerce, requires only to be seen to be appreciated. I have visited every quarter of the globe—but have seen no place so lovely—romantic—so admirably situate—whether as regards the poet, the painter, the merchant or the statesman as Ceylon;—that its intrinsic worth may be appreciated in England is the Author's fondest wish, not less on account of the fascinating spot to which these remarks have reference, than for the sake of England herself. A time will come (may the day be distant) when Great Britain will cease to hold her empire on the continent of India,* and when the nations of Europe will contend for maritime superiority in the East;—we have before us the examples of the Portuguese and Dutch,—they neglected Ceylon; the one made it the cradle of idolatrous superstitions, the other the temple of trading cupidity. We are now in the fair course

against each other with an unbroken section, secured at the joints by the notched pieces which support the road-way, the latter being held in their position by means of cross ties below and above the arch, and immediately under the road-way: these cross ties, with the aid of diagonal braces, which are also locked into them, serve to give stability and firmness to the whole structure, which has no other material but timber in its construction.

* It is on this account that I deem the *insular* possessions of Britain of such great importance; for instance, an extensive revolt throughout India, or its successful invasion by Russia, might annihilate our dominion on the Continent, while our possession of Ceylon would remain unshaken, and thus enable us to preserve, at least, a portion of commerce. (*See my Colonial Policy.*)

to shun both extremes;—our missionaries (the pioneers of civilization) are extending the beatitude of the gospel among the dark, benighted heathen,—our merchants freeing themselves from the pernicious shackles of monopolies, are making peaceful commerce, as she ought to be, the companion of religion; under both these influences Ceylon bids fair to be one of the most important colonies of the British empire. That to England may belong the glory of re-peopling, civilizing and Christianizing this romantic isle, is earnestly hoped by one whose earliest days were spent in exploring paths where no white man's foot before trod—and where the untutored savage and the beast of the forest now dispute for pre-eminence.

Monthly Post-Office Steam Packets between England and India, *via* the Cape of Good Hope, &c., and Computation of Annual Receipts for Postage, &c.

Letters, Newspapers, Periodicals, Law Papers, and Accounts; Bullion, Specie, and Jewels; small Packages, and Passengers Out and Home Annually.	Madeira.		Cape Verd Islands.	Branch P. Sierra Leone, Gambia, &c.		Ascension and St. Helena.		Cape of Good Hope.		Isle of France.		Branch P. Swan River, V. Diemen's Land, N. S. Wales.		Ceylon.		Branch P. Penang, Malacca, Singapore, and China.		Branch P. Bombay.		Madras.		Calcutta.		Grand Total Letters, Postage, &c.
	Annual No. of Letters, Newspapers, &c.	Annual Post-Office Receipts.	Depot for Coals.	Annual No. of Letters, Newspapers, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	
Letters (Single and Double) average	£. 6000 at	£. -	-	£. 6000 at	£. -	£. 2000 at	£. -	£. 24000 at	£. -	£. 12000 at	£. -	£. 40000 at	£. -	£. 12000 at	£. -	£. 10000 at	£. -	£. 63400 at	£. -	£. 92184 at	£. -	£. 138673 at	£. -	No. 406209
At an average Postage each	1s. 6d.	450	-	2s.	-	2s.	200	3s.	3600	3s. 6d.	2100	4s.	8000	5s.	3000	6s.	3000	6s.	19040	5s. 6d.	25336	6s.	41603	£. 106929
Newspapers (daily and weekly) average	3000 at	-	-	5000 at	600	2000 at	-	10000 at	-	5800 at	-	30000 at	-	6000 at	-	10000 at	-	60000 at	-	100000 at	-	300000 at	-	No. 531000
At an average Postage each	2d.	25	-	3d.	-	3d.	25	3d.	425	3d.	62	4d.	500	4d.	100	5d.	213	6d.	1500	6d.	2500	6d.	7500	£. 12002
Monthly, Quarterly, and Annual Journals, avge.	200 at	-	-	500 at	62	150 at	-	2000 at	-	1600 at	-	5000 at	-	2000 at	-	2500 at	-	40000 at	-	15000 at	-	30000 at	-	No. 68950
At an average Postage each	1s.	10	-	1s.	-	1s.	7	1s. 6d.	150	1s. 6d	150	2s.	500	2s.	200	2s. 6d.	312	2s. 6d.	1250	2s. 6d.	1875	2s. 6d.	3750	£. 8198
Law Papers, Commercial Accounts, &c.	2000 at	-	-	1000 at	25	500 at	-	5000 at	-	3000 at	-	10000 at	-	4000 at	-	6000 at	-	10000 at	-	15000 at	-	40000 at	-	No. 95500
At an average rate per oz.	1s.	100	-	1s.	50	1s.	25	1s. 3d.	312	1s. 6d.	225	2s.	1000	2s.	400	2s. 6d.	750	2s. 6d.	1250	2s. 6d.	1875	3s.	6000	£. 11867
Bullion, Specie, and Jewels, &c. per freight		300	-	-	500	-	50	-	300	-	500	-	200	-	1600	-	5000	-	3000	-	5000	-	10000	£. 20450
Packages not exceeding 10 lbs. weight do.		500	-	-	1000	-	500	-	1500	-	1000	-	3000	-	2500	-	2000	-	5000	-	8000	-	20000	£. 45000
																								Total Post-Office Receipts independent of Passengers, on a moderate computation. £. 211,015
Passengers Out and Home, annually	50 at	-	-	50 at	-	30 at	-	15 at	-	100 at	-	500 at	-	200 at	-	100 at	-	500 at	-	700 at	-	1000 at	-	
Rate of Passage Money	£25	1250	-	£25	1250	£2	750	£35	5250	£40	4000	£60	30000	70	14000	70	7000	£80	40000	£70	49000	£90	90000	£. 242,500
																								Grand Total Post-Office Receipts. £. 453,515

* We ought to have possession of the Cape Verd Islands, as links in our Indian route: they are now merely haunts for pirates and slave ships.

† The No. of Letters here given are taken from the Returns in the Parliamentary Papers on East India Affairs, Appendix to "Finance and Commercial," page 999. The scale of Postage is that proposed by the Anglo-Indians.

CHAPTER IX.

STEAM NAVIGATION WITH INDIA; PROPOSED PLAN OF POST OFFICE STEAM PACKETS VIA MADEIRA, ST. HELENA, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, ISLE OF FRANCE, CEYLON, &c.; ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE RED SEA AND CAPE OF GOOD HOPE ROUTE BALANCED; COMPUTATION OF THE EXPENSE OF TWELVE STEAM PACKETS, &c.

THE facilitating and accelerating of the communication between Europe and Asia will be equivalent to the annihilation of space, or the application of a lever which would have the power of bringing into closer approximation two distant continents. The public mind in both hemispheres is now being directed to so highly important an object, and private munificence and liberality appealed to for the accomplishing a national good: this is obviously improper, for the Governments both in India and in England have made the post-office department a monopoly in the hands of the executive authorities; with those should the opening of a post-office system originate, and by those only indeed can it be efficiently executed. That the Governments of India and of England may not only without pecuniary loss, but with considerable profit, open a steam-packet post-office communication with India, is demonstrated by the Table on the opposite page, in which I have taken the lowest calculation for letters, newspapers, parcels, passengers, &c. passing between both countries, without allowing for the impulse which rapidity of communication gives to commerce and social intercourse, or to the recent changes in the respective relations of the Eastern and Western hemisphere. My reasons for advocating the Cape of Good Hope route in preference to that *viâ* the Red Sea, or the Euphrates,are—1st. That we would bring into closer and speedier communication the *whole* of our Asiatic and African colonies, whereas by the Red Sea route, even if cer-

tain difficulties (to be hereafter noticed) could be overcome, only *a part* of our Eastern possessions would be benefitted:—

2nd. That therefore the prospect of remuneration for the large expenditure requisite is more secure by the Cape than by the Red Sea or Euphrates route.

3rd. That the commercial, political, and social advantages to England and her colonies would be infinitely superior.

4th. That whereas we are mistress of the ocean and have our route by the Cape open so long as the British trident rules; but we are not masters of Egypt or Persia; on the contrary we are not only at the mercy of Mehemet Ali's successors, but subject to the caprice of the French and Russian Governments in their intrigues with the Porte or the Pacha. [This paragraph stands as it was printed in the first edition—my anticipations have been verified for intelligence has this moment reached me from Constantinople, under date 13th May, 1835, that Mehmed Ali Pacha, influenced by Russia, has forcibly prevented the landing and passage through Syria of the Euphrates expedition, fitted out by Col. Chesney, under the authority of Government: this fact is strikingly corroborative of the fact that the Cape of Good Hope route is the practicable plan.]

5th. In the event of war the Red and Mediterranean Seas' narrow route would be (particularly in Europe) very hazardous both for letters and passengers, and much less secure than on the highway of the ocean, independent of the liability to *complete* interruption for years, and the consequent loss of the capital embarked in the undertaking.

6th. That although the travelling distance is greater by the Cape than by Egypt, yet, owing to *quarantines* and numerous impediments, it is in reality shorter, and would be practically found so by comparing twelve voyages by either route, even under the *now* most favourable prospect which Egypt or Persia presents, but which would be entirely reversed on the breaking out of hostilities.

7th. That the delay* (if it be admitted for argument sake) of a few days by the Cape route as compared with the Red Sea, or Euphrates, is far more than counterbalanced by the numerous British possessions it brings into close contact, and by the route being much healthier for Indians or Europeans over the health invigorating ocean, than over the burning sands of Egypt, and plague infested delta of the Nile. [Plague is now (June 1835) raging furiously at Alexandria.]

8th. That depots of coal can be more expeditiously, and cheaply provided from England, from Calcutta, and New South Wales, where coal mines are now in full work, and from Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, where they exist, but have not yet been worked, than by the tedious shipments of fuel from England to Alexandria, and from Calcutta to Bombay and the isthmus of Suez.†

* Mr. Perkins proposed to build a steam ship of 1,000 tons, carrying 800 tons of coal, to make no stop between London and Calcutta, and to perform the voyage (13,700 miles) in 60 days! The following was the run of the *Enterprize* under the various disadvantages attendant on a first experiment, with the very limited powers of an 120 horse engine, and with only *one depôt* of coal at the Cape of Good Hope. She left the land on the 16th of August, 1825; reached Calcutta on the 7th of December, 1825; that was 113 days (of which she was 103 actually under weigh) from the land to Diamond Harbour. She used both sail and steam. The greatest run by sail in 24 hours was 211 miles; the least, 39: the greatest by steam assisted by sail, 225; the least, 80: the greatest heat in the engine-room during the voyage was 105 degrees, the air at the same time being 84 degrees and a half. The total distance was 13,700 miles; and the consumption 580 chaldrons of coal, being nine chaldrons per day for 64 days; the rest being under sail. The speed of the engine in calm weather was eight knots an hour, the log giving nine, from the wash of the paddles.

† Mr. T. L. Peacock states that coals burnt in the Red Sea cost £7. per ton. Lieutenant Johnson states that there should be depôts of coal at Lisbon, at Madeira, at one of the Canary Islands, at Cape Verd, Cape Palmas, Ascension, St. Helena, the island of St. Thomas, at St. Philip de Benquil, at the Cape of Good Hope, in Algoa Bay, Port Dauphin, Isle of France, at Diego Garcia, Pono Molubque, if anchorage for a hulk can be found at that place, Point de Galle, at Trincomalee, at one of the Andaman or Nicobar Islands, at Madras, and at Calcutta; and, in the passage to

9th. The voyage may be as *safely* performed viâ the Cape (if not more so than against the monsoon in the Red Sea) as by the Mediterranean and Red Sea, as demonstrated by Captain Johnson, in the Enterprize Steamer, while the improvements which have taken place in steam navigation since 1825, and the experience derived from the voyage, demonstrate the certainty and despatch with which the Cape route may now be effected.*

I now come to consider the mode in which the project may be efficiently put into execution. It would be necessary that a packet start on the 1st and 15th of every month, from Falmouth, or Port Valentia, on the West Coast of Ireland,† and

Bombay, it would be necessary to have one at Delagoa Bay, at Joanna, at the Seychelles, Cochin, and at Bombay. By this means, says Lieut. J., the average voyage to India would be 80 days, while the fair average for sailing vessels is 120 or 130 days. Another plan proposed for speedy communication with India *viâ* the Cape of Good Hope, is to fit a steam engine of 30 horse power into a fast vessel of 600 tons, to use it only as an auxiliary, to move the vessel through calms, &c. Vessels thus constructed would be applicable to commercial purposes, the sacrifice required would not exceed from 100 to 130 tons, and the average voyages to Calcutta would be from 85 to 95 days.

* I have doubled the Cape of Good Hope 15 times, have crossed the Irish Channel as often, but the weather and danger of the former was nothing almost compared with that of the latter. It is now well known that a steamer is more buoyant and better adapted to ride out a gale than a mere sailing ship.

† A grand national undertaking,—viz. the connecting Dublin and Valentia harbour by a rail-road, and making the latter the starting station for the American, West India, Mediterranean, and Portugal packets—is now in contemplation by Pierce Mahony, Esq., whose public spirited efforts have already conferred so much good on Ireland. Port Valentia is the most western port in Europe, and vessels sailing thence are not merely free from the dangerous and often tedious navigation of the channel, but they are so far to the westward as to be better situate for beating to windward against the prevalent westerly gales. The project would be of the utmost benefit in a political point of view, by enabling Government, at a given moment, to despatch troops or ships of war to any point; in a commercial light, it would facilitate trade by a speedier, cheaper, and more certain packet intercourse with all our colonies; and with the United

from Calcutta, for the maintaining of which communication, twelve steam and sailing boats of 300 tons each (including the branch packets) would be necessary; the packets to be of a stable and buoyant nature, with Gurney's improved engines; tanks* to hold the coals, in order that they may be filled with water, to serve as ballast, according as the fuel is consumed (the water to be shipped and emptied by means of the lately invented pumps.) The vessels to be schooner rigged, and the masts, chimnies and paddles to strike or ship as occasion demands (in the trade winds and monsoons, the packets would sail when not opposing those periodical breezes, consequently the steam engines would be at rest, and the consumption of fuel saved)† and a tube to be attached to the engine for the conversion of steam into fresh water. The packets to carry each four 18 lb. carronades of a side, with two long nine pounders; to be commanded by an officer of the British Navy (salary 500*l.*) with a First Lieutenant (300*l.*); two mid-

States and foreign countries it would also make the British isles the highway for travellers between the Old and New World—between the eastern and western hemispheres; above all, it would secure to England her maritime supremacy, by affording a constant oceanic ingress and egress, which she was too often denied during the war, by her fleets being windbound in the Channel, and even at the Cove of Cork, for three months. There are many other important considerations which ought to stimulate Government to give every possible aid towards the completion of such a national undertaking.

* Lieutenant Johnson says, the *Enterprize* was capable of stowing 35 days' consumption of coal; for 11 days after leaving England he steamed without intermission, and then found himself to the S. of the Canary Islands. Lieutenant J. states that he experienced some very rough weather off Cape Palmas; that the steamer behaved very well, and that while a steam vessel's engines remain in order she is less exposed to danger than a sailing vessel. On opening the Mozambique channel, the *Enterprize* experienced a heavy gale; the fires were then put out, the wheels disconnected from the engine, and the ship scudded under her main-top and foresails 10 knots per hour. 'She steered admirably, answered her helm as well as a ship could possibly do, and behaved in every way like an admirable sea-boat.'—(Evidence before Parliament.)

† There was no depôt for coal but the Cape of Good Hope.

shipmen or mates (100*l.* each); a purser, (300*l.*); a surgeon, (300*l.*); two engineers, (250*l.* each); an assistant ditto (100*l.*); one gunner and armourer (100*l.*); one carpenter (100*l.*) and mate (60*l.* each); eight stokers, (60*l.* each); four fire men, (50*l.* each); twelve able seamen, (50*l.* each); and four boys as apprentices (20*l.* each), making a complement of forty hands, and an expenditure in wages and provisioning under 4,000*l.* sterling, which for twelve packets would give the cost of wages and provisions at 60,000*l.* a year, and this sum deducted from the Post Office's *lowest* computed receipts, would leave nearly £400,000. sterling, to provide vessels, engine and fuel. Let us now examine the expense for fuel, and as I have on the one hand estimated the income at the *lowest*, so on the other, I would desire to compute the expenditure at the *highest*. The twelve packets would on an average be employed each, two hundred days during the year in *steaming* (thus scarcely allowing any thing for performing half the voyages to and from India by means of the monsoons, trade, and other favourable winds) making in all two thousand, four hundred days, which at *ten tons* of coal per day at *forty shillings* per ton (on an average, allowing for freight to some depôts) would cost £48,000.; thus we see the expense of *wages*, *provisions* and *fuel*, would on an extreme calculation, be scarcely more than £100,000. a year, not *one fourth* of the Post Office income; but there is another item to be provided for, and that is the wear and tear of the vessels, and the interest of money on their first cost. Twelve steam vessels of 300 tons each, with engines of 160 horse power, may be constructed in England, and amply provided with every requisite store at £20,000. each = £240,000.; allowing 10 per cent. interest, and insurance on the capital thus employed, the annual cost would be £24,000. to which add £26,000. a year for wear and tear, and we have a further charge of £50,000. making a *grand total* of £150,000. per annum, as the amount of the whole Post Office establishment, to defray which there is an almost certain income of full £450,000. a year, thus yielding at the very outset, a revenue of upwards of a quarter of a million to the state. The facts here brought

forward, are submitted to the examination of the Government, in the firm belief that on mature reflection it will be found deserving of adoption, not less for the sake of India and the colonies, than for the welfare of England, for whatever promotes the prosperity of the one enhances in a corresponding ratio the weal of the other. If the regular transmission even of letters to India, viâ Egypt be adopted, I shall hail it with much satisfaction, as the prelude to a far more important and beneficial undertaking,—namely, the annihilating of at least 5,000 out of the 13,000 miles between India and England, and removing our numerous and valuable Eastern Colonies by several thousand miles nearer to the parent state, thus connecting and consolidating our maritime empire.*

* Several persons, namely, Capt Chesney, Mr. Bowater, &c. are sanguine as to the facilities and speed with which the passage to India can be made, *viâ* the Euphrates and Persian Gulf; and Mr. Peacock thinks that, by making the best possible use of every circumstance, the passage to Bombay from an English port may be made in *five* weeks. The course would be across France to Marseilles or Trieste, thence by *steam* to Latichea, thence by *land* to Beles, thence by *steam* down the Euphrates to Bussorah, thence by *steam again* to Bombay. A great deal of trade is, at present, carried on from Bagdad to Damascus, by a line which crosses the Euphrates at Hillah, and from Hillah to Bussorah on the Euphrates, and from Bussorah to Bagdad on the Tigris. Over-land despatches from Bombay principally—1st, Bussorah, Great Desert, Aleppo, Constantinople, Venice, London, 4,804 miles; 2nd, Bussorah, Bagdad, Mosul, Diarbekir, Constantinople, London, 5,116 miles; 3rd, Red Sea, Suez, Alexandria, Venice, London, 5,492 miles. The distance from Bombay to Bussorah is 1,600 miles, and thence to Aleppo 718 miles by land; from Bombay to Suez 3,000 miles; from Suez to Cairo 70 miles; from Cairo to Alexandria by land 140 miles by the river. Russia, in fact, is at present planning her route to India, and extending the facilities to this purpose. It is a doubtful point whether by adopting a line of communication with India *viâ* the Euphrates or Red Sea, we would not be smoothing the road for the Autocrat's troops. It is in evidence before parliament, that the Russians have been recently surveying the river Oxus and all the country to India, with great care; they prefer this route to India rather than Alexander's through Persia, as in the latter, a large army would suffer by want of water. The projected Russian route to India is by the Wolga into the Caspian Sea (on which, as well as

on the Wolga, they have steam navigation) across the Caspian to the Gulf of Mertvoy. Then there are 100 miles of land to the sea of Aral, where there is abundance of coal; then there is the navigation of the Oxus, on which there is now a great deal of traffic, by Khiva, where a Russian military colony is now being established. Or the Russians may come down the Euphrates or the Tigris on rafts, which could be put together with great rapidity to any extent: then might they so establish themselves at Bussorah, that it would not be easy to dislodge them, and they could build sufficient shipping at Bussorah with timber floated down from Armenia. Is it then wise or prudent of England, on the one hand, to facilitate the progress of Russia to India *vid* the Euphrates; or of the French *vid* Egypt? These considerations in a political point of view, ought to prompt the British Government to give every facility to the route to India *vid* the Cape of Good Hope; and as to cutting a ship canal from Cairo to Suez (the difference in the height of the Mediterranean and Red Sea (10 feet) being remedied by locks), at an expense of 700,000*l.*, the result would be to throw the eastern commerce of the British possessions into the hands of the French and other foreign ports in the Mediterranean. In a political and commercial point of view, the establishment of steam navigation with India *vid* the Cape of Good Hope is of the utmost value without any of the drawbacks as detailed above.

It is a tribute to justice that I should here state the efforts made by Lord William Bentinck, while Governor-General of India, for the promotion of a regular line of steam packet communication between Europe and Asia;—his Lordship has in this, as in numerous other instances, evinced the workings of a comprehensive mind whose great object has ever been the welfare of his fellow-creatures.

For Montgomery Martin's History of the British Colonies Vol. I. Possessions in Asia.

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J. & C. Walker, Sculp.s

CHAPTER X.

PENANG, MALACCA, AND SINGAPORE, THEIR LOCALITY, AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, HISTORY, POPULATION, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, SOCIAL CONDITION AND POLITICAL AND GENERAL ADVANTAGES, &c.; BRIEF VIEW OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE, ITS AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, MERCANTILE REGULATIONS, WEIGHTS, MEASURES, AND MONEYS, WITH A CONCISE EXPOSITION OF THE TEA TRADE, &c.

THE possessions now about to be described, though small in comparison with those delineated in the preceding pages, are of considerable importance, whether viewed in connection with the Anglo-eastern empire, or separately as commercial stations or political maritime positions. Being under one government, their history is given in a single chapter, but their distinct features geographically and mercantilely demand a separate consideration for each;—to begin with the seat of government.

PENANG* OR PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND.

LOCALITY AND AREA.—This picturesque island (so well adapted for a commercial entrepôt), is situate on the W. coast of the Malayan peninsula, in lat. from 5.15. to 5.29. N. and long. 100. E.; its greatest length is 16 statute miles from N. to S., and its greatest breadth 12 miles at the north, and decreasing to eight miles at the south, thus forming an irregular four sided shape, with a range of lofty hills in the centre, the whole computed to contain 160 square miles.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The valley of Penang, about three miles in breadth, is the level part of the island on its eastern side,

* The Malay term for the areca or betel nut, which the Malays think the isle bears some resemblance to in shape.

extending from the hills to the sea, of a triangular shape, the ranges of mountains forming the base and the apex, called *Tanjong*, jutting into the harbour, and having George Town (the capital) and the Fort of Penang built on it, on which, for three miles in every direction from the point, private houses extend. Almost the whole of the northern shore is mountainous, and through the centre of the island runs a range of hills, decreasing in height and magnitude as they reach towards the south. On the west and south of the mountains there is a considerable quantity of level ground of good quality for every species of cultivation as is now demonstrated by the general culture thereof. Indeed two-thirds of Penang is of level or gentle inclination. The east owing to its moistness is covered with rice fields. The south and west vallies though partly cultivated for the same purpose, are chiefly laid out in pepper gardens and spice plantations. Everywhere close to the coast, as in Ceylon, runs an extensive belt of cocoa nut trees, and scattered over the island in various groups, appear groves of the graceful areca palm (or Penang) from which the isle takes its Malay name. The hills and low grounds, where not cultivated, are thickly covered with wood. Vegetation is splendidly luxuriant and for miles and miles the eye rests on one dense mass of mountain forest. Besides George town (the capital) above alluded to, there is only one large collection of houses entitled *James town*, situated on the sea shore, four miles to the south of the capital, amidst a grove of the lovely palm tribe. Numerous small villages and Malay topes are scattered over the island (especially on the south side,) often beautifully and romantically situated on the coast or amidst spice groves in the vales.

The hill called the '*Highlands of Scotland*,' is 1428 feet above the sea, (and like the other stations) the situation and climate of which are delightful. The whole of the valley is of alluvial formation, and it would appear, that the sea once washed the base of the mountains; for on the opposite shore of Quedah, successive deposits of alluvial matter have been traced for several miles inland, indicating the gradual retire-

ment of the ocean, by ridges being seen running parallel with the present line of coast.*

A recent visitor thus describes his ideas on approaching Penang. 'The island, with the exception of two plains of inconsiderable extent on the eastern and western shores, consists of one range of lofty hills, with towering peaks. The entrance to the harbour leading between the island and the Quedah coast, on which side the view is arrested by a noble chain of mountains, whose lofty summits terminate in a majestic outline, is picturesque and beautiful; the neat bungalows ranged round the bay, close to the water's edge, the fort projecting into the sea, the town lining the beach, and the distant islands shutting the passage to the south, form a panoramic view of great interest.'

The harbour of George Town, the capital, is capacious with good anchorage and well defended; it is formed by a strait about two miles wide, that separates Penang from the opposite Quedah coast on the Malayan peninsula. The sea is placid throughout the year, and the periodical effects of the monsoons little felt, the winds partaking more of the character of land and sea breezes.

When storms rage at sea the tides are affected by being irregular in their flow through the islands, sometimes running in one direction for several days with great rapidity, and then changing to another. The town is one of the neatest in India,—the streets wide, straight and at right angles;—the buildings are respectable, and the Chinese shopkeepers (who are the principal tradesmen) lay out their 'godowns' tastefully. The roads are among the finest in India, their beauty being enhanced by the strength and luxuriance of the vegetation which continues the whole year round.

History.—When first known to Europeans the island appeared quite untenanted, covered with forests and considered as a part of the possessions of the King of Quedah on the

* Many interesting details of this picturesque island have been printed by Dr. Ward, of the Madras service, in the *Singapore Chronicle* of July, 1833.

contiguous coast. In 1785 Capt. Light, the commander of a 'country ship' in India, having married the King of Quedah's daughter, received a gift of the island as a marriage portion: Capt. Light transferred it to the E. I. Company, who having entered into a treaty with his Quedah majesty (which was to last as long as the *sun* and *moon* gave light!) agreed to pay 6,000 dollars annually to the King, which in 1800 was raised to 10,000, in consideration of the Company receiving the Wellesley province on the main land opposite Penang, a territory extending 35 miles along the coast, four miles inland from the S. bank of the Quaila Mudda to the N. bank of the Krian river, lat. 5.20. N.

CLIMATE.—January and February are the dry and hot months, and November and December the rainy ones; but excepting the two former the island is seldom a week without refreshing showers. The thermometer on Flag-staff hill (2,248 feet high) never rises beyond 78° F. (seldom to 74°) and falls to 66°; on the plain it ranges from 76° to 90°. The island is considered remarkably healthy. The climate of the high land of Penang resembles that of Funchal at Madeira, possessing the advantage of a very limited range of thermometer, the greatest range in 24 hours being 11°, and generally only three or four. The lightness and purity of the atmosphere elevate the spirits and render the step free and buoyant, while the splendid and varied scenery, the island itself with its hills and dales, the calm ocean around studded with verdant isles, and the opposite coast of Quedah with chains of mountains towering chain over chain, combined with the health inspiring breezes, render a residence among the gardens of Penang of much value to the invalid.

GEOLOGY.—The mountains are entirely composed of fine grey granite, and the smaller hills are of the same material, excepting some hills near the coast formed of *laterite*, as is also Saddle Island on the S.W. angle of Penang. A tin mine was worked some years ago in the hills, and doubtless many valuable minerals exist in the mountains, which are probably equal in quality to those of the contiguous Malayan peninsula.

The soil is generally a light black mould mixed with gravel and clay, and in some parts there is a rich vegetable ground, formed by the decayed leaves of the forests, with which the island had for ages been covered, the coast soil is sandy but fertile.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The botany of the island is rich and varied: on the mountains grow the poon, bitanger, rangas, red poon, dammerlaut, wood oil tree, the cypress and some superb species of arborescent ferns. The caoutchouc or elastic gum winds round all the trees in a spiral form. All the Malacca fruits, with the exception of the *duku*, grow in great abundance, the sugar cane and pepper vine are extensively cultivated (the quantity of pepper annually produced averages lbs. 2,025,000 avoirdupois); cloves and nutmegs thrive well, (the former cover the tops of the cleared summits, the latter are found in every part of the valley, one plantation alone occupying a space of several square miles) coffee yields abundantly, extensive *fields* of pine apples of delicious goût are found at the foot of the mountains; the tea plant grows wild; ginger, cinnamon, cotton, tobacco, and in fact every intertropical production is capable of being brought to the highest state of perfection.

ZOOLOGY, &c.—The Malayan elk (cervus equinus) is found in the deep forests; the mouse and spotted deer are both very abundant. Monkeys, the lemur volans, the wild cat, otter and bat form the only indigenous animals; and the snakes, as in all tropical isles, are numerous; a species of boa (the python of Cuvier) 18 to 20 feet long, is found in the hills. Beef, mutton and pork are of excellent flavour; and a great variety of fish furnish the bazaar.

POPULATION.—When the Company's Establishment was formed at Penang in 1786, the only inhabitants were a few miserable fishermen on the sea coast. In consequence of the disturbances in the Malayan principalities, and the encouragement given to settlers by the E. I. Company, a native population of various descriptions arose. The population of

the Settlement according to all the returns before me has been as follows during the years

1821 number 38,057. 1822 number 51,207. 1824 number 53,669.
1826 - 55,116. 1827 - 57,986. 1828 - 60,551.

The following Official Return* shews the motley population of Penang:—

Census of the Population of Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, Province Wellesley, and adjacent Isles, up to the 31st December, 1828.

	Districts.	Malays and Bugis.	Achinese.	Battas.	Chinese.	Chuliars.	Bengalies.	Burmese and Siamese.	Arabs.	Armenians.	Parsees.	Native Christians.	Coffrees.	Total.
Penang.	George Town	3,374	26	390	3,987	3,752	295	52	113	17	13	656	7	12,682
	Teluk Ayer Raja	3,525	164	173	1,410	1,368	843	665	7	2	-	645	39	8,841
	Jelutang	2,496	24	158	1,556	727	210	72	29	-	-	23	18	5,313
	Glugore	935	6	96	473	161	1	13	5	-	-	9	35	1,734
	Sungei Kluang	2,078	103	126	733	53	4	7	-	-	-	-	15	3,119
	Western District	677	24	180	830	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,722
	Pulo Jeraja Isles	112	-	7	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	122
	Pulo Reman	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27
	Total	13,224	347	1,130	8,999	6,075	1,353	809	154	19	13	1,333	114	33,560
Wellesley Provinces.	Qualla Muda	6,605	-	-	155	55	154	256	-	-	-	-	-	7,225
	Teluk Ayer Tawar	7,663	4	16	164	76	368	42	4	-	-	-	-	8,357
	Qulla Prye	3,084	-	10	232	43	16	6	-	-	-	-	-	3,390
	Jura	1,548	-	17	82	-	6	4	-	-	-	-	-	1,057
	Battu Kawan	1,348	-	28	526	27	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,938
	Total	33,492	351	1,201	10,148	6,276	1,906	1,117	158	19	13	1,333	114	29,593
European (40) and Native Military and Followers (1,100), and convicts (1,300) about,														2,500
Europeans, and their Descendants, about														500
Itinerants of various classification														1,000
General Total														60,153

* This Table, as also many others in the Volume now presented, have never before been printed, either by the E. I. Company or by Parliament; and I am indebted for them to the well known urbanity of the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company.

Between October 1828, and December 1829, the population had increased 3000. The number of mouths may now be calculated at upwards of 60,000.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Penang is carried on with Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, England, China, Java, Ceylon, Siam, Tenasserim Coast, Acheen, Delhi, Quedah, and a few petty native ports. In Mr. Fullarton's elaborate paper on the trade of our eastern islands, printed in the East India papers in 1833, (II. Trade, part 2, Commercial, page 878) it appears that the total value of imports into Penang were—

In 1828-29 S. Rupees	52,23,872
Exports from ditto	36,00,900
Excess—S. R.	16,22,972

The imports and exports of specie for the same year were

Imports—S. R.	8,32,232
Exports	7,19,876
Excess .	1,12,356

The value of *imports in S. Rupees from* Calcutta was 10,94,986; from Madras, 16,95,850; Bombay, 2,65,290; England, 1,67,670; China, 2,18,440; Siam, 1,77,610; Tenasserim, 1,77,010; Acheen, 8,08,513; Delhi (a petty state on the Sumatra shore) 2,04,905; and Quedah, 2,21,200; the exports value to the same places in succession were 3,57,126; 2,38,765; 2,30,146; 50,668; 9,65,834; 96,093; 1,55,152; 10,75,842; 1,58,930; and to Quedah, 1,35,930.

Of the imports, opium alone consists of upwards of *seven lac* of rupees: the other items are comprized of the various produce of the Straits, or of India and British goods, the trade being one of transit. Birds' nests for Chinese soups is one of the most important articles.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The Appendix to the Select Report of the House of Lords, gives the following table of revenue and expenditure (exclusive of commercial charges) for nineteen years; it will be observed that Sincapore and

Malacca are included in the two last years; the reductions ordered in the Court of Directors' Despatch, 7th April, 1829, will ere long enable Penang to meet its expenditure with its own revenues.

Years.	CHARGES.				Interest on Debts.	Total Charges and Interest	Revenues and Customs.	Net Charge.	*Expense of Military not included in the Charges but in the Bengal Accounts.
	Civil.	Military.	Buildings and Fortifications	Total Charges.					
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1809–10	99,494	15,895	16,428	131,817	..	..	70,372	61,445	44,509
1810–11	88,299	36,274	18,447	123,020	..	..	80,440	42,580	32,822
1811–12	76,974	13,328	10,815	101,117	..	..	68,557	32,560	31,212
1812–13	83,630	16,945	12,740	113,315	..	..	48,891	64,424	32,414
1813–14	91,091	16,190	8,478	115,759	..	..	57,075	58,684	36,604
1814–15	94,503	16,861	6,347	117,711	..	..	54,316	63,395	37,385
1815–16	91,399	19,028	9,257	119,684	844	120,528	53,868	66,660	33,063
1816–17	86,819	13,451	9,292	109,562	..	..	54,861	54,701	28,074
1817–18	72,582	12,659	15,036	100,277	..	..	56,585	43,692	34,582
1818–19	66,223	11,073	4,116	81,412	..	..	57,027	24.385	27,261
1819–20	66,632	7,728	2,141	76,501	..	..	49,938	26,563	33,819
1820–21	71,667	8,235	1,510	81,412	..	..	52,022	29,390	25,094
1821–22	68,934	12,754	4,251	85,939	..	..	41,660	44,279	23,237
1822–23	72,360	13,389	3,208	88,957	..	..	44,076	44,881	24,035
1823–24	81,761	14,478	2,063	98,302	..	..	35,956	62,346	24,164
1824–25	98,287	11,835	3,209	113,331	..	..	38,220	75,111	24,798
1825–26	113,682	14,543	7,069	135,294	253	135,547	31,422	104,125	38,375
1826–27	121,1[illegible]	23,058	4,991	*b* 149,217	1,272	150,489	*b* 55,744	94,745	37,230
1827–28									
1828–29									
1829–30									
1830–31									
1831–32									
1832–33									
1833–34									
1834–35									

b The accounts of Sincapore and Malacca are included in these years; but for nine months only in the year 1826–27, and for the whole year in 1827–28.

The sale of opium is a monopoly in the hands of government, who derive a revenue from it of about 40,000 Spanish dollars a year; land, licenses, and customs, are the remaining chief sources of revenue.

The government of Penang, Malacca, and Sincapore, is subordinate to the Presidency of Bengal, and the civil establishment recently fixed as follows:—

Chief Resident at Singapore, Rupees 36,000; First Assistant, 24,000; Second ditto, 7,200; Deputy Resident at Malacca, 24,000; Assistant, 7,200; Deputy Resident, Prince of Wales's Island, 30,000; Assistant, 7,200; Assistant, Province Wellesley (exclusive of military pay), 3,600; one Surgeon 9,600, and three Assistant Surgeons at 4,800, 14,400, 24,000; two Chaplains at 8,500 each, and one Missionary 2,500, 20,000; Office Establishment, 12,000. Total S. Rs. 1,95,200.

As a commercial and maritime station Penang has many advantages; it serves as an entrepôt for the various produce of China, the eastern islands and straits, the native merchants from which take back in return British and India goods. It was at one time contemplated to form an extensive arsenal and ship-building depôt at Penang, and indeed several fine ships were built there, but the object was ultimately abandoned. At present Penang serves as rendezvous for our naval squadron in the Indian seas, for which its position, healthiness, and abundance of provisions admirably qualify it; during the Burmese war Penang was found a most valuable station, as it would again be in the event of renewed hostilities. When, perhaps, the British dominion in Hindostan shall have terminated, or if a violent convulsion should occur to drive us temporarily from its territory, (circumstances which are not beyond the range of possibilities), the possession of such insular stations as Penang, Ceylon, &c. will be found of incalculable worth. Their value now even is vast, and it may be expected will be appreciated more and more every day, as a spirit of enterprize leads our fellow subjects to a more intimate connexion with the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere.

MALACCA.

Locality and Area.—Near the southern extremity of the long Malayan peninsula* in Lat. 2.14 N. Long. 102.12 E., is situated the British settlement of Malacca, extending about 40 miles along shore by 30 inland, and containing an area of 800 square miles; bounded on the N. by Salengore at Cape Rochado, on the S. Johore, at the river Muar, on the E. by the Rumbo Country, and on the W. by the straits of Malacca.

Physical Aspect.—The sea coast is rocky and barren,

* The length of the Peninsula is 775 miles, with an average breadth of 125 miles.

with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese used as places of sepulture. The interior is mountainous, (being a continuation of the Alpine chain, which runs from the Brahmaputra river in Assam to the extremity of the peninsula); with several picturesque vallies, the highest mountain (named by the natives Lealdang, by the Portuguese *Mount Ophir*), has an elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea. Colonel Farquhar was nearly six hours ascending to the highest part of Mount Ophir, the table surface on the top of which does not exceed forty yards square; the whole mountain appears to be a solid block of granite, here and there thinly covered with decayed vegetable soil. Stunted firs are found near the summit, and the vegetation of the mountain was quite different from that met with on the plains and vallies. The principal rivers are the Muar and Lingtuah, and the small streams and rivulets from the mountains are very numerous. The extreme point of the peninsula is a cluster of small islands; the road-stead is safe, and in the S. W. monsoon vessels not drawing more than 16 feet of water are secure in a harbour under the lee of the fort. Colonel Farquhar (who has made Malacca his study), observes, that violent tempests never occur at its excellent anchoring ground, that the Sumatra squalls which are common to the straits seldom last above an hour or two, and that for upwards of 25 years while the English had possession of the place no ship had been lost.

History.—The Malayan peninsula, although the great majority of the inhabitants are Malays (whence it derives its name), is not the original country of that active, restless, courageous, vindictive and ferocious people.

The present possessors (or Malayan princes and their subjects) emigrated in the twelfth century, from Palembang in Sumatra (the original country of the Malays) about A. D. 1252, and founded the city of Malacca. As they extended their colonization, the aborigines of the country, who are oriental negroes with woolly hair, jet black skin, (the Malays are copper coloured) thick lips, and flat nose, like the African, and of

diminutive stature were driven inland to the mountains, where some of their unfortunate posterity still exist.

The Malayan chiefs soon became involved in hostilities with their neighbours, partly, perhaps, because their sultan Mahomed Shah, adopted the Mahommedan religion from the Arabs, then great traders in the East. Although the Malacca people were able to resist the attacks of the Siamese on their chief city, they were compelled to yield to the conquering Portuguese, who in 1511, compelled Sultan Mohammed Shah the twelfth of his line, and the seventh of the city of Malacca, to fly, after an obstinate resistance, to the extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the principality of Johore, which still exists. The Portuguese held Malacca until 1640, though with great difficulty, against the repeated assaults of the Sultans of Acheen, when it was assailed by the Dutch, who captured it after six months' siege. In 1795 it was seized by the British, but restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1801. On the breaking out of the European war in 1807, it was again taken by the English, but again restored at the peace of 1815; however, in 1825 it was received by England, together with the Fort of Chinsurah on the river Hooghly, 20 miles from Calcutta, in exchange for the British settlements on the island of Sumatra.

Climate.—The climate is reckoned one of the healthiest in India, the temperature being uniform, the thermometer ranging from 72 to 85 the whole year round. The mornings and evenings are cool and refreshing, and the sultry nights of Hindostan rarely occur. There is no regular monsoon, but the rainiest months are September, October, and November. The fluctuation of the barometer throughout the year is trifling, the range being 30.3 to 29.83, giving an annual variation of only one-fifth of an inch. The average of casualties in the garrison for seven years was two in 100, a fact which attests the salubrity of the climate.

POPULATION.—The population of the settlement of Malacca,* was in 1750, 1766, 1815, and 1817, thus,

	1817.	1815.	1766.	1750.
In the first street	1667	1606	Christians 1668	Christians 2339
In the second street	1006	944	Chinese .. 1390	Chinese .. 2161
From Tranquerah to Condor	2986	2946	Moors 1023	Moors 1520
Banda Hileer to Kassang	5263	5020	Malays .. 3135	Malays 3615
Binghe Rayo to Pankallang Battoo	6802	4397		
	1903	1966		
	19627	16878	7216	9635

In 1822 the population was 22,000, and the following is the latest return at the India House.

DISTRICTS.	Malays and Bugis.	Chinese.	Chulias.	Hindoos.	Bengalies.	Siamese.	Battas.	Arabs.	Native Christians.	Coffrees.	Total.
Malacca Town	895	2354	792	451	21	11	264	14	360	23	4795
Trankerra Quarter	747	566	1056	704	1	1	148	19	575	1	3818
Bandalier Quarter	901	234	92	..	..	1	5	..	773	3	2009
Bongaraya and Bukit China	3365	603	12	..	..	2	73	3	175	1	2235
Klaybang to Bamuan China	4102	149	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4251
Padang Temmo to Chin Chin	7268	269	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7537
Gualiam Gantee to Sembrang Gajah ..	1765	323	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2088
Pringit to Panchor	1247	246	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1491
Nanning	4587	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4593
Total	22878	4748	1862	855	22	15	490	36	1883	28	32817

Itinerants supposed here at this season, about ..	800
Native Military and Followers and Convicts, about	760
Europeans and their Descendants, about	229
Total	34606

Abstract of the whole census of Malacca in 1826.

* The inhabitants of Malacca, in 1830, came to a unanimous resolution to liberate every slave in the settlement 31st December, 1841.

	No. of Houses.	Adults. Male. Married.	Adults. Male. Unmarried.	Adults. Female. Married.	Adults. Female. Unmarried.	Children Boys.	Children Girls.	Total.	Births. Males.	Births. Females.	Deaths. Males.	Deaths. Females.	Malays Debtors. Men.	Malays Debtors. Women.	Malays Debtors. Boys.	Malays Debtors. Girls.	Malays Debtors. Total.	Malays Slaves. Men.	Malays Slaves. Women.	Malays Slaves. Boys.	Malays Slaves. Girls.	Malays Slaves. Total.	Quantity of Seed of Paddy planted.	No. of Bullocks and Buffaloes.	Chinese Debtors.	Servants in Pay. Malays. Males.	Servants in Pay. Malays. Females.	Servants in Pay. Seranies. Males.	Servants in Pay. Seranies. Females.
Europ. and their Descendants	52	32	23	32	29	45	42	233	6	4	3	4	17	11	9	7	47	70	89	34	31	224	409	73	23	58	20	6	16
Seranies, Dts. of Portuguese	425	413	346	465	346	397	322	2289	68	65	50	38	21	2	4	1	9	50	38	16	7	111	40	6478	47	58	20	6	16
Malays	4608	4486	2476	4703	2261	1779	1587	23202	318	274	278	238	31	23	8	5	67	152	104	56	40	353	42655	100	106	58	20	6	16
Chinese	939	736	1419	818	693	732	578	5006	68	83	77	75	4	3	1	2	9	239	172	56	58	525	594	710	819	58	20	6	16
Klings Mussulmen	274	290	206	298	222	244	242	1192	45	41	24	23	13	14	3	2	32	82	65	40	29	216	710	100	91	58	20	6	16
Ditto Hindoos	161	159	142	174	104	150	121	850	21	21	17	13	13	14	3	4	34	42	33	11	5	91	819	106	106	58	20	6	16
	6449	6106	4612	6530	3655	6357	5902	33102	548	489	449	391	86	56	24	19	164	686	501	213	170	1519	45227	6801	23	58	20	6	16

Natural Productions. — The staple of the settlement is tin mines (which are all within a circuit of 25 miles round Malacca), which produce, generally, 4,000 peculs (a pecul is 133 pounds avoirdupoise) a year. In the vallies vegetation is extremely luxuriant; rice yields from 200 to 300 fold; the sugar cane is equal to any produced in any part of the globe; coffee, cotton, indigo, chocolate, pepper, and spices, have all been tried, and thrive remarkably well. The spontaneous productions of the soil are very numerous, consisting of an almost endless variety of the richest and most delicious fruits and vegetables. The country is covered with very fine and durable timber for ships and house building; the *Murbon* tree, which is nearly equal to teak, is extremely abundant. Canes and rattans form a considerable branch of the exports; the forests yield gums, resins, and oils in great plenty; the camphor tree grows near the S.E. extremity of the peninsula; a great variety of medicinal plants and drugs are common in the woods; the nutmeg grows wild. If the gold and tin

mines in the vicinity of Malacca were scientifically worked, they would prove of great value; at present, the Malay and Chinese miners seldom dig below six or ten feet, and, as the veins become thin, remove from place to place. The gold from *Hoolo Pahang*, 100 miles inland from Malacca, is of the purest quality; and there are some small mines of gold at the foot of Mount Ophir, called Battang Moring, about 36 miles from Malacca.

Birds' nests, wax, cutch, dammeer, fish maws and sharks' fins (for Chinese soups) rattans, camphor, betelnuts, gold dust, sago, dragon's blood, ivory, hides, aguilla and sappan woods, &c. are among the principal productions. Captains of ships will be glad to hear that fruit and vegetables of every variety are abundant and low priced, and that poultry, hogs, buffaloes, and fish are plentiful and cheap. During the progress of the expedition against Java in 1811, 30,000 troops, and their followers were abundantly supplied with fresh provisions of every variety daily.

COMMERCE.—Malacca, being situate between the two great emporiums of trade in the eastern archipelago, Penang, and Singapore, the one at the N.W. and the other at the S.E. of the straits, has necessarily a trade limited to its own consumption and produce. Before the establishment of the two latter named settlements, and during the monopolizing and sway of the Dutch there, it was a place of considerable traffic.

Tin forms one of the principal items of export, and as the free trade captains may perhaps enter into the trade, it may be well to caution them of the adulterations practised by the Chinese and Malay miners. Lead is the metal usually alloyed with tin, and in order to detect adulterations, buyers may readily ascertain (with sufficient approximation to correctness) the extent of fraud endeavoured to be practised by melting a standard muster of pure tin in a large sized bullet mould with a small orifice, and then compare a mould of the tin under examination, with that of the pure metal, if the former be heavier, the proportion of adulteration may readily

be calculated. Antimony has the effect of hardening the admixture with lead, thereby increasing the difficulty of detection, as regards external appearances.

The tin mines are thus described in the Singapore Chronicle.

The whole number of Chinamen connected with the mines at Sungie Hujong is probably 600, divided into 10 Kung Se's or companies. They appeared more respectable, and have a greater command of capital, than those at Lookut. There they are much fettered by the rajah, and are not allowed to sell an ounce of tin themselves; but here there is no such restriction. The mode of working the mines is much alike in both places, except at Sungie Hujong they have the advantage of the Chinese chain-pump, which is used for raising the water out of the mine pit. The apparatus is simple, consisting of a common water-wheel, a circular wooden chain about 40 feet in circumference, and a long square box or trough, through which it runs in ascending. The wheel and chain, I think, revolve on a common axis, so that the motion of the former necessarily puts the latter into action. The chain consists of square wooden floats, a foot distant from each other, and strung as it were upon a continuous flexible axis, having a moveable joint between each pair. As the float-boards of the chain successively enter the lower part of the box or trough (immersed in water), a portion of water is constantly forced up by each, and discharged at the top. At one of the mines we were much struck with the simple but efficient mode of its application. There were three distinct planes, or terraces, rising above each other. On the middle one was the wheel; the lower was the pit of the mine: from the higher a stream of water fell and turned the wheel, which, putting the whole machine into motion, brought up another stream from the pit; these two streams, from above and below, uniting on the middle plane, run off in a sluice, by which the ore was washed.

The total value of imports in 1828-29, was S. R. 10, 81, 782, of exports, S. R. 6, 72, 211. The imports of specie amounted to S. R. 4,19,717; and the exports amounted to S. R. 2,65, 239. The value of imports from Calcutta is S. R. 1,12,565; from Madras 2,43,178; from England 1,01,664; and from small native ports 2,98,591.

The accounts, however, of this government, as stated by Mr. Fullerton are extremely defective.

Weights and Measures.—Throughout the Straits of Malacca the common weights are the *pecul, catty,* and *tael.* The

Malay pecul three of which make a *bahar* is heavier than the common or Chinese pecul, which is = 133½ lbs. Rice and salt are usually sold by the coyan of forty peculs nearly, and gold dust by the *bunkal* = 832 grs. troy. The *gantang* (by which grain, fruit, and liquids are sold) = 1¼ Eng. gallon is divided into two bamboos. Twenty *gantanes* of rice make a bag, and forty bags a *coyan*. Cloth is measured by the *astah* or *covid* of eighteen inches nearly. Land, by the *orlong* of twenty jumbas = 1⅓ acre.

CURRENCY.—The currency of the straits is Spanish dollars divided into 100 cents. The Dutch rix dollar and guilder (divided into fanams and doits) are also used, chiefly at Malacca. One guilder = 12 fanams = 120 doits. The rix dollar is a nominal coin of about 20 fanams, 31 or 32 of which make a Spanish dollar. The *silver* coins comprise dollars of all descriptions, guilders and half guilders. The *copper*, the cent, half and quarter cent; there are also doits, stivers, and wangs, including a great variety of copper coins, of different countries.

REVENUE.—When acquired by the British government, the whole revenue of the settlement was but 20,000 dollars; its revenue accounts are now incorporated with those of the other settlement (Vide Penang).

EDUCATION.—One of the most valuable British institutions in the east, is the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca, established in 1818, by the joint efforts of the late Rev. Drs. Morrison and Milne. The object in view is the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and European literature, and the instruction of native youths in the principles of Christianity. The native Chinese students in the college, generally average from 25 to 30, all of whom are on the foundation of the college, receiving each a monthly allowance. Several valuable and interesting translations have been made from Chinese books, and English standard works have been translated into Chinese: a foundry for types has been established, paper manufactured, and a periodical commenced. The college is indebted for existence to private contribution, and it is to be hoped that so useful

an institution will not be allowed to languish for want of support. Attached to the college at Malacca are several schools the whole of which are supported by the London Missionary Society; the Chinese schools alone contain nearly 300 boys, and the Tamul schools are increasing. The female schools at Malacca are doing well, and three schools have been established by the Malays for the instruction of their countrymen in the English language. Schools are also established at Tavoy, Moulmein, and Rangoon. At the latter place, the head master is a Chinaman, who has been brought up in the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca.

GENERAL VIEW.—The important geographical position of the settlement as commanding the straits which form the direct passage from India to China, &c.; its healthiness, and cheapness render it a fitting place for the establishment of a seat of government, for the eastern settlements; the advantage of which would be more and more appreciated in our new commercial arrangements with China. Both Singapore and Malacca are too distant to be kept as mere Residences of Bengal; and the Governor General has quite enough to do already, without attending to those places, although therefore a general control might be kept up from the supreme Government, it would be better to make Malacca head quarters for our stations in the eastern archipelago.

SINGAPORE (SINGHAPURA.)

LOCALITY AND AREA.—This rapidly rising emporium of trade, is situate on the southern extremity of the peninsula of Malacca just described, in lat. 1.17.22. N. long. 103.51.45. E.* of an elliptical form, about from 25 to 27 miles in its greatest length from E. to W.; to 15 miles in its greatest breadth from N. to S.; and containing an estimated area of 270 square miles, with about 50 small desert isles within 10 miles around it, in the adjacent straits whose area is about

* This is the position of the town.

60 miles, the whole settlement embracing a maritime and insular dominion of about 100 miles in circumference.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The island is on the N., separated from the main land of the Malayan peninsula, by a very small strait, which in its narrowest part is not more than one quarter of a mile wide. On the front, and distant about nine miles, is an extensive chain of almost desert isles, the channel between which and Singapore is the grand route of commerce between E. and W. Asia. The aspect is low and level, with an extensive chain of saline and fresh water marshes, in several parts covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation,—here and there, low rounded sand hills interspersed with spots of level ground, formed of a ferruginous clay with a sandy substratum.

The town stands on the S. coast, on a point of land near the W. end of a bay where there is a salt creek or river navigable for lighters nearly a mile from the sea; on the E. side of the town is a deep inlet for the shelter of native boats. The town consists generally of stone houses of two story high, but in the suburbs called *Campong-glam*, *Campong-Malacca*, and *Campong-China*, bamboo huts are erected on posts, most of them standing in the stagnant water. On the E. side of the harbour enterprising British merchants are erecting substantial and ornamental houses fronting the sea, presenting a strange contrast to the wretched tenements of the Malays. The ground is generally raised three feet, and the mansions have a superb entrance by an ascent of granite stairs, then an elegant portico supported by magnificent Grecian columns of every order of architecture: the rooms are lofty with Venetian windows down to the floor, and furnished in a luxurious manner; each tenement provided with its baths, billiard tables, &c. while the grounds are tastily laid out with shrubs of beautiful foliage, the *tout ensemble* affording a most picturesque prospect from the shipping in the roadstead.

GEOLOGY.—The principal rock is red sand-stone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragment and crystals of quartz. The whole conti-

guous group of isles, about 30 in number, as well as Singapore, are apparently of a submarine origin, and their evulsion probably of no very distant date.

CLIMATE.—Notwithstanding its lowness, marshiness, intertropical position and consequent high temperature, with a rapid and constant evaporation by a nearly vertical sun, from a rank and luxuriant vegetation, and a profusion of animal and vegetable matter in every stage of putrefaction, Singapore has hitherto proved exceedingly healthy, owing perhaps to its maritime position. Being so near the equator there is of course little variety of seasons, neither summer nor winter; Fahrenheit ranges from 71° to 89°: the periodical rains are brief, indistinctly marked, and extending over about 150 days of the year.

Climate of Singapore.

	BAROMETER.						THERMOMETER.					
	Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.
January	30.03	30.06	29.99	29.90	29.99	29.87	77	86	83	72	75	74
Feb.	30.02	30.04	30.00	29.88	29.91	29.87	79	87	85	74	82	78
March	29.97	29.99	29.97	29.83	29.85	29.83	80	88	86	73	76	79
April	29.99	29.99	29.95	29.85	29.87	29.82	81	87	87	73	80	79
May	29.94	29.99	29.91	29.83	29.84	29.82	81	87	86	75	78	80
June	29.98	29.97	29.97	29.80	29.86	29.82	84	88	87	75	77	77
July	29.95	29.96	29.92	29.82	29 83	29.83	82	88	85	73	78	77
August	29.95	29.99	29.95	29.85	29.88	29.84	81	87	85	75	78	78
Sept.	29.99	30.03	29.98	29.85	29.87	29.83	82	87	85	74	76	77
October	29.96	29.97	29.95	29.83	29.88	29.80	79	88	86	75	76	79
Nov.	29.91	29.95	29.93	29.80	29.83	29.80	79	86	86	71	80	79
Dec.	29.94	30.00	29.98	29.82	29.85	29.82	78	85	86	73	75	75
Annual Average	29.97	29.99	29.95	29.84	29.86	29.83	80.2	87	85.6	73.6	77.6	77.6

HISTORY.—The Malay annals relate that in 1252, A. D. Sri Iscandar Shah, the last Malay prince of Singapore, being hard pressed by the king of Majopahit, in Java, returned to the main land, where he founded the city of Malacca. That the Dutch or Portuguese may have settled on the island is probable from the remains of religious buildings and other

structures, which indicate its having been once thickly inhabited. On the design of Sir Stamford Raffles the settlement of Singapore was first formed in February 1818, and its sovereignty in its present extent confirmed to Great Britain in 1825, by a convention with the King of Holland and the Malay Princes of Jehore.*

POPULATION.—When taken possession of by our establishment in 1820, it had been inhabited for eight years by about *one hundred and fifty Malays*, half fishermen and half pirates. Within the brief space of time from 1820 to 1832, its population has thus rapidly progressed, (we have no correct data previous to the end of 1823.)

Population of Singapore from the end of 1823 to beginning of 1833.

—	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1832
Europeans	74	84	111	87	108	122	119
Native Christians	74	132	206	188	193	272	300
Armenians	16	9	18	19	25	24	35
Arabs	15	10	17	18	17	32	96
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	390	690	605	777	1,095	1,440	1,819
Natives of Bengal and other parts of Hindostan	366	226	384	244	294	455	400
Indo-Britons	—	—	—	—	—	—	96
Bugis, Balinese, &c.	1,851	1,704	1,442	1,242	1,252	1,360	1,726
Malays	4,580	5,130	5,697	4,790	5,336	5,750	7,131
Javanese	—	38	146	267	355	634	595
Chinese	3,317	3,828	4,279	6,088	6,210	7,575	8,517
African Negroes	—	—	2	5	—	—	37
Total	10,683	11,851	12,905	13,725	14,885	17,664	20,917

The following Census of the Population (with its divisions) of the settlement has been furnished me from the India House, and as it has not before been published, its printing may now be useful.

* There is, I believe, a pension of 24,000 Spanish dollars a year paid by the E. I. Company to this Rajah, as an equivalent for the cession.

List of the Population at Singapore on the 1st of January, 1829.

SINGAPORE TOWN.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	24	2	26
Native Christians	17	7	24
Malays	356	304	660
Chinese	94	8	102
Natives of Bengal	104	3	107
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	72	1	73
Arabs	7	1	8
Javanese	7	9	16
Total	681	335	1,016

GAMPONG GLAM.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	27	16	43
Native Christians	19	10	29
Malays	673	797	1,470
Chinese	817	22	839
Natives of Bengal	38	7	45
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	97	7	104
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	216	67	283
Javanese	95	84	179
Total	1,982	1,010	2,992

ISLANDS.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	1	—	1
Native Christians	6	—	6
Malays	562	520	1,082
Chinese	45	2	47
Natives of Bengal	4	—	4
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	127	68	195
Javanese	1	—	1
Total	746	590	1,336

CAMPONG CHINA.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	33	4	37
Armenians	18	6	24
Native Christians	80	71	151
Malays	382	452	834
Chinese	4,125	341	4,466
Natives of Bengal	56	17	73
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	1,150	4	1,154
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	2	69	71
Javanese	82	55	137
Arabs	22	2	24
Total	5,950	1,021	6,971

COUNTRY AND PLANTATIONS.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	12	3	15
Native Christians	47	15	62
Malays	927	779	1,704
Chinese	2,082	39	2,121
Natives of Bengal	179	47	226
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	104	5	109
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	446	365	811
Javanese	276	25	301
Total	4,073	1,276	5,349

SUMMARY.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Singapore	681	335	1,016
Campong China	5,950	1,021	6,971
Campong Glam	1,982	1,010	2,992
Country and Plantations	4,073	1,276	5,349
Islands	746	590	1,336
Grand Total	13,432	4,232	17,664

Census of Singapore, 1st January, 1833, shewing the proportion of Males to Females.

Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	91	28	119
Indo Britons	56	40	96
Native Christians	167	133	300
Armenians	27	8	35
Arabs	96	0	96
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	1,762	57	1,819
Do. of Bengal and other parts	389	11	400

Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Jews	2	0	2
Siamese	5	2	7
Buggies, Balinese, &c.	794	932	1,726
Malays	3,763	3,368	7,131
Javanese	361	234	595
Chinese	7,650	867	8,517
Caffres	23	14	37

Males .. 15,181 Females .. 5,797 Total .. 20,978

To the the foregoing must be added 553 convicts, and military and their followers 600, making a grand total of 22,000 mouths, where a few short years ago there was not 109! The leading merchants, agents, shopkeepers, and auctioneers are Englishmen. There are several wealthy Chinese merchants, and the bulk of the shopkeepers and most valuable part of the citizens are Chinese, nearly 5,000 of whom arrive annually from China by the yearly trading junks, about 1,000 of whom remain at Singapore, and the remainder disperse themselves over the neighbouring islands. The Malays are chiefly fishermen, and the natives of the Coromandel coast boat-men.

Society is divided as at Presidencies, into four distinct castes—1st. The civilians of the Company. 2d. The military. 3d. First class merchants. 4th. Second class merchants, shopkeepers, &c.; and, as in all small communities, they are exclusive in their coteries.

There are an American Missionary and two Roman Catholics, but as yet no house of worship. A Romish chapel is in progress, and near its completion; and some who would not give a farthing for their own religion, are liberal enough to contribute handsomely in aid of a church for others. The humbler classes are uneducated, but honest and faithful to their employers.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—From the foregoing description it will be seen that the island can as yet have few indigenous productions; it is in fact a commercial emporium, and probably will never be much more. Its chief staple is the agaragar of the Malays, *(fucus saccharinus)*, a plant like fern, which abounds on the coral shoals around Singapore, and produces in China from six to eight dollars per pecul, in its dry bulky state. By the Chinese it is converted into glue, paint, &c. &c., for glazing their cottons, and sacrifice paper; the finest portion is made into a rich jelly, which makes a delicious sweetmeat when preserved in syrup. The harvest of this sea-weed is from 6,000 to 12,000 peculs annually.

There are about 10 sago manufactories at Singapore, giving

employment to 200 Chinese manufacturers; the quantity of pearl sago exported from the island during 1834 was—to England, peculs 17,030; Calcutta, 1,700; Bombay, 970; China, 300; Cape, 150; Hamburgh, 1,870; America, 300; Madras, &c. 780;—total, 23,100 peculs. The sago is not grown in the island, but brought in its rough state from Borneo, &c.

COMMERCE.—No accounts of the trade of the island were kept prior to 1824, since then the value of the imports and exports have been as follows:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.	Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.
1824	1,455,509 £	1,390,268 £	2,845,717 £	1829	2,121,559 £	1,876,250 £	3,997,809 £
1825	1,323,917 ..	1,228,786 ..	2,552,703 ..	1830	1,875,350 ..	1,826,634 ..	3,701,984 ..
1826	1,361,978 ..	1,388,306 ..	2,750,284 ..	1831	1,780,994 ..	1,565,157 ..	3,346,151 ..
1827	1,488,599 ..	1,387,201 ..	2,875,800 ..	1832			
1828	1,961,120 ..	1,804,660 ..	3,765,780 ..	1833			

The account of its trade with different countries will be seen by the following return of the comparative statement of the trade of Singapore, (imports and exports), with the different countries in 1830-31 and 1831-32, &c.

Comparative Statement of the Imports and Exports of Singapore for 1830-31 and 1831-32.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1830-31	1831-32	1830-31	1831-32
England ..... Sp. D.	1,161,945	1,514,664	3,535,576	3,037,926
Foreign Europe	75,301	81,302	99,637	20,976
South America	31,563	6,016	—	—
Mauritius, &c.	5,897	7,068	18,484	12,661
Calcutta	1,215,958	1,072,852	1,061,636	879,559
Madras	48,733	141,049	135,714	148,576
Bombay	105,625	91,575	193,125	172,501
China	2,857,505	2,433,959	899,305	735,412
Java	1,135,025	978,978	542,389	359,693
Rhio	84,915	92,216	61,648	75,039
Siam	200,007	243,980	149,449	212,180
Cochin China	37,717	126,402	40,778	223,405
Ceylon	12,724	7,341	14,849	—
Acheen and N. Pepp. Ports..	77	35,290	725	—
Sumatra	187,398	151,589	167,511	165,285
E. C. Peninsula	375,595	320,271	410,693	310,145
Straits	40,424	27,904	30,583	24,044
Celebes	234,346	173,917	258,924	167,716
Borneo	244,176	209,637	192,229	178,016
Bally	71,142	53,471	102,829	52,596
Manilla	204,153	40,303	164,700	33,323
Camboja	17,638	9,055	14,624	7,700
Other Ports, &c.	110,871	118,135	175,875	124,784
Total Sp. D.	8,458,731	7,936,974	8,271,223	6,941,542
	7,936,974		6,941,542	
Difference	521,757		1,329,681	

Imports from		Exports to	
Malacca.. Square Rigged, V. Sp. D.	88,186	Square Rigged,	104,755
Ditto.... Native Craft	81,978	Native Craft....	81,999
Penang.. Square Rigged	318,267	Square Rigged..	236,720
Ditto.... Native Craft	35,378	Native Craft....	70,411

Shipping at Singapore, 1833-34:—

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of square-rigged Vessels which have Imported into and Exported from Singapore, during the official year 1833-34, compared with the preceding year.

	IMPORTS.						EXPORTS.					
	1832-1833.		1833-1834.		1834-1835.		1832-1833.		1833-1834.		1834-1835.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Great Britain	18	6226	28	7754			30	9800	26	8023		
Continental Europe	3	651	7	1661			3	581	5	1150		
America	2	676	2	615			1	231	1	200		
Mauritius	..	..	3	819			..	..	1	238		
Bourbon	..	..	2	451			73	43780	103	56043		
China	47	19166	57	24743			10	1740	11	2379		
Manilla	21	6994	20	6002			33	8448	33	9734		
Calcutta	38	16517	40	17194			7	2150	14	4021		
Madras	10	3455	10	2802			22	12257	26	14019		
Bombay	32	22666	51	33958			1	300	3	1248		
Arabia	..	..	2	748			2	299	4	569		
Moulmein	..	..	1	76			1	110	2	362		
Ceylon	3	389	4	839			108	14426	34	3507		
Malacca	67	9002	64	5850			18	3561	68	8018		
Penang	54	9573	46	6447			54	10085	74	14869		
Java	81	17035	73	12224			12	1495	20	3565		
Sumatra	5	596	16	3174			31	5706	9	957		
Rhio	10	1547	6	733			4	960	8	2573		
Siam	4	628	5	1684			4	1266	6	1545		
Cochin China	4	987	3	770			3	559	2	301		
N. S. Wales	9	3000	15	5838			1	231	..	..		
Cape of Good Hope	1	205	..	..			..	..	..	..		
Borneo	3	327	12	1781			2	374	14	1567		
Tringanu & other native Ports	8	803	7	743			7	872	7	704		
Arracan, Rangoon and Chittagong	..	..	..	..			1	450	2	320		
Pegu	..	..	..	..			1	150	..	..		
Bali and Eastern Islands	..	..	1	392			..	..	1	437		
	420	120443	475	137298			429	119825	474	136349		

The number of vessels under each flag is thus shewn:—

Import Tonnage 1833-34, *by square-rigged Vessels*; *under what Flags.*—From *Great Britain*, 28 vessels under British flag; *Continental Europe*, 2 French, 2 Hamburgh, 2 Danish, 1 Portuguese; *Isle of France*, 2 British, 1 French; *China*, 42 British, 1 Hamburgh, 1 Danish, 4 Dutch, 9 Portuguese; *Manila*, 15 British, 1 Danish, 4 Spanish; *Calcutta*, 38 British, 2 Portuguese; *Madras* and *Coast*, 9 British, 1 French; *Bombay* and *Coast*, 41 British, 1 French, 9 Portuguese; *Arabia*, 2 Arab; *Moulmein*, 1 British; *Ceylon*, 4 British; *Malacca*, 56 British, 8 Portuguese; *Penang*, 43 British, 1 Danish, 1 Portuguese, 1 Malay; *Java*, 3 British, 1 Hamburgh, 67 Dutch, 2 Cochin Chinese; *Sumatra*, 8 British, 1 Hamburgh, 1 Danish, 5 Dutch, 2 Malay; *Rhio*, 4 British, 1 French, 1 American; *Siam*, 5 British; *Borneo*, 5 British, 7 Dutch; *Cochin China*, 1 French, 2 Cochin Chinese; *Tringanu*, 6 British, 1 Dutch; *N. S. Wales*, 15 British; *Bali* and *Eastern*

Islands, 1 Portuguese; *Bourbon*, 2 French; *U. S. America*, 2 American. Totals—325 under British flag, 9 French, 5 Hamburgh, 6 Danish, 3 American, 92 Dutch, 23 Portuguese, 4 Spanish, 2 Arab, 4 Cochin Chinese, 3 Malay. Grand Total—475 vessels, tonnage, 137,298.

Native craft:—

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Native Vessels, Prahus, and Junks, which have Imported into and Exported from Singapore during the official year 1833-34, compared with the preceding year.

	IMPORTS						EXPORTS.					
	1832–1833.		1833–1834.		1834–1835.		1832–1833.		1833–1834.		1834–1835.	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
China	7	1247	27	4642			13	2675	9	1447		
Cochinchina and Camboja	17	998	49	3010			26	2307	27	1966		
Siam	37	4397	24	3702			37	3990	17	2537		
East side of the Peninsula	143	3057	72	1689			111	2557	76	1565		
Borneo	98	2291	138	3096			75	1704	148	3231		
Celebes	81	1812	55	1345			97	1985	102	2041		
Bally	46	964	63	1566			37	1915	73	2043		
Java	48	2347	72	2936			5	467	44	2120		
Sumatra	518	3531	514	3744			470	3432	397	3309		
Penang	3	475	8	420			3	725	5	447		
Malacca	79	2276	60	2608			82	2181	68	3003		
West side of the Peninsula	55	474	46	311			50	487	36	250		
Rhio	251	3182	251	3613			302	4538	261	3863		
Neighbour Islands	185	1623	220	2075			187	2015	214	2055		
	1466	28714	1599	34927			1495	30178	1480	29877		

Gold forms one of the most valuable imports of Singapore. The principal portion is from Pahang on the coast of the peninsula, and it is considered superior to the metal brought from other places. The various places whence this important product is shipped for Singapore will be seen by the returns for 1831.

From Ports on E. Coast of Peninsula:

Pahang—bunkals—4,285. Calantan—ditto—300.

From Borneo:

Lambas—bunkals—1,508. Pontiana—ditto—633. Soongai Rayeo—417
Papes ditto 58. Bintoola—ditto—20. Banjar, &c. 32
Sumatra—Jambie—bunkals—104. Campar—ditto—160.
Celebes island ditto 560. Other islands 31. Total—8,103.
Or *Catties**—405—bunkals—3.

The greater part of this immense quantity is sent to Calcutta for opium, &c.

* A *cattie* is 1 lb. and 1-3rd avoirdupois.

GENERAL VIEW.—As a commercial mart, and key to the navigation of the seas, in whlch it is situate, this settlement is of incalculable importance; we have seen by the foregoing accounts, that it has sprung up within the short space of ten or twelve years from a desert isle to a rich and flourishing settlement, exporting annually 3,000,000*l.* worth of goods. It has two periodical journals well conducted; its inhabitants are imbued with a manly and independent spirit, and its trade is as yet but in its infancy. The opening of the Chinese market will not diminish its resort, but on the contrary, increase it; situate as it is in the centre of myriads of active and industrious nations, inhabiting rich and fertile lands, abounding in every species of tropical produce, of which Europe, America, or China has need, ready to receive in return the manufactures of Britain to an almost illimitable extent, and being unmolested in its progress by harbour duties, dues, or charges of any description, it requires nothing but a withdrawal of England from her narrow minded and miserable commercial policy of excluding eastern produce, to make our trade with the Asiatic Archipelago (of which Singapore is now the entrepôt) one of the most valuable branches of our mercantile connexions.

[In the preceding edition a complete view was given of the Chinese Empire, which it was necessary to omit in the present, owing to the large quantity of additional and important matter furnished from the India House; and which was of course more intrinsically valuable than that portion relating to China.]

CHAPTER XI.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA, IN A CHRISTIAN, POLITICAL, AND COMMERCIAL POINT OF VIEW.

THE Christian and the moralist who is accustomed to trace in the records of past ages the beneficent dispensations of the Supreme Disposer of events, as regards man in his collective as well as individual state, will not fail to perceive, that since the time of Elizabeth, England has risen from a small insulated kingdom to a vast *maritime* empire totally different in formation, and in constitution from any dominion that has heretofore been established on earth, and it will also be seen (by the subsequent volumes of this work) that no part of this unparalleled empire is more deserving of deep consideration in a philanthropic, political or commercial point of view, than the British possessions in Asia. As travellers are wont, when ascending a lofty eminence, to pause and contemplate the scene above and beneath, let me entreat the reader, who has accompanied the author through the foregoing unavoidably monotonous detail of facts, to reflect on by-gone events. I will suppose him a Christian (and of course a philanthropist) intensely solicitous for the dissemination of the pure and mild precepts of religion, and desirous of extending the blessings of education among untaught millions, and of rescuing the land of the heathen from the dark and degrading idolatry in which it was unhappily plunged, amidst a sea of misery and vice: to such an individual I would say, how rapid, how strange, how incredible almost has been the rise and progress of the British power in the east. We first visited its picturesque and fertile shores as a race of needy adventurers, thirsting for gain, and perhaps but little scrupulous as to the means by which it was to be acquired; in a brief space of time we rose from petty traders to be sovereigns over

100,000,000 of intelligent and comparatively civilized human beings; in our progress reducing the elements of chaos, of rapine, and of murder into social order, security and peace. Will any reflecting person say that all this was the work of blind chance? Will he have the hardihood to assert, that no overruling Providence swayed the destiny of Britain, giving victory to the few, strength to the weak, and power to the merciful?

To him who now writes, the finger of the Almighty is over all his works—in the mineral, in the vegetable, in the animal kingdoms; on the earth and in the sea, and throughout the heavens. Conscious of this as of existence, can he deny to the creator and preserver of the universe a complete governing control over the actions of His creatures, especially in those of such momentous importance, as the dynasty of nations, and the temporal as well as spiritual welfare of millions?

Human agency, it is true, has been the only *visible* means of accomplishing the formation of the British power in Asia, but how multitudinous are the occurrences of everyday life, which teach that the battle is not to the strong, nor the race to the swift? Let us search the recesses of our own hearts, and we will find that in hours of sickness and sorrow, we involuntarily turn our thoughts to the contemplation of a supreme regulator of our actions; and shall we in prosperity deride and deny that unseen, yet omniscient Being, whose favours we are so ready to solicit in affliction and in adversity?

To contend, therefore, against the interposition and aid of the Deity, in the British acquisition of India, would be as impious as it would be untenable in argument. *Why do I advert to it?* To point out the best course which, as Christians, we are bound to adopt towards the myriads of fellow-creatures so mysteriously subjected to our sway, being assured, that unless our conduct be regulated by the precepts of Christianity, all human power and human efforts will be like unto tinkling cymbals and sounding brass.

When the British Government became masters of India, their first duty was the establishment of general tranquillity;

a lovely and beautiful land, which for ages had been a stranger to social concord, now for the first time, within the memory of man enjoys the inestimable blessings of peace. What became of the second Christian duty of the government? The diffusion of education, the implanting of light where there had been heretofore darkness, the inculcation of knowledge among the ignorant. For a view of the efforts now in progress to accomplish this holy object—this stepping stone to Christianity, I refer to the preceding pages, and in doing so, I would call on all who have the worldly means at their disposal, to aid by their contributions those good and pious men, who, forsaking the comforts of civilized life, and all the nameless endearments of home, devote their very existence to promoting the weal of their dark brethren.

Let it not be thought that in a blind and mistaken zeal, the *compulsory* introduction of Christianity among our eastern brethren, is advocated: had I not the example of the Portuguese Roman Catholic fanaticism and its fatal consequences before me; yet would I abstain from inculcating such a course; knowing that that which is acquired by violence is transient as the passing breeze, and that a faith on which the exercise of reason is denied, can only be maintained by fraud propagated by force.

The British authorities in the east have set a wise example to rulers. Among their earliest decrees, was the *permission of the free and peaceable observance of all forms of worship, which were regarded as religious by the worshippers, and the recognition of all rights and the protection of all property connected with the religion of persons resident within their jurisdiction:* thus securing to their subjects the laws, religious institutions and distinctions, which the antiquity of ages had consecrated, yet at the same time, leaving that which was objectionable in a moral sense, open to the cautious, progressive, and permanent amelioration which the instruction of the Hindoos would undoubtedly suggest. Warned by the fate of their predecessors (the Mahommedans and Portuguese) no religion was engrafted on the State, (even the pro-

testant bishops in India have never had a seat at the council board as is the case in some of our colonies) and every communion was not merely tolerated but protected and auxiliarized.* In return for this toleration and protection, human sacrifices, infanticide (in 1802), maritime and internal traffic in slaves, witchcraft (in 1789), cruelties, widow burning (finally in 1829) &c. were successively prohibited. Mutilations for offences, and in a great degree capital punishments abolished. Equal rights accorded to all from the nabob to the peasant, and every possible means taken for making our government of India one of moral rather than physical force.

That much has been done in India to gladden the christian's heart is indisputable, all that remains is to follow up with temperate and steady perseverance the course of instruction now in progress throughout our Eastern possessions, and the adjacent territories, whether by government or by Church, Wesleyan, Baptist, American or Moravian missionaries, for it is only by such proceedings we can effectually prepare the natives of British India for the government of their own country at some future period, and make them, whether politically separated from—or connected with—England, bound to us in the deepest ties of human affection. We found 100,000,000 Hindoos parcelled out like cattle, beneath the sway of an hundred despots, exhibiting amidst their myriads of diversified population, no grandeur of intellect—no capaciousness of soul—all one groveling mass of mortality, reduced for the greater part to a state of domestic servitude, and under the debasing influence of a superstition, for which nothing was too gross and revolting, while their country was periodically ravaged by fire, famine, pestilence and the sword; it would be a libel on human nature to say that there was no gratitude among the Hindoos to England, for rescuing them from their past misery; we have it now in our power to convert that gratitude into a deep—a permanent affection; away then with the ignoble, the selfish, the degrading idea, that

* Regulations of the Bengal Government in 1793, to 'protect the natives in the exercise of their religion.'

by educating the Hindoos, we shall the sooner enable them to expel our dominion from Hindostan; would a parent refuse to educate his child, lest the latter should become wise as its father, and thus dispute his paternal authority—an authority, which in a well regulated mind is based on love? No!—I will not demean my country by supposing that such unworthy thoughts are to any extent entertained, and let those who fear for the breaking up of the integrity of the empire, remember that the Ruler, who in his infinite wisdom, thought fit to sever the N. American provinces from Britain, and almost immediately raised up in the East, a dominion greater than that lost in the West, will find a substitute for the Anglo-Eastern Empire, should He at a future period decree the separation of Hindostan from England.

Having now demonstrated concisely, but it is to be hoped satisfactorily, the manifold advantages which have accrued to a very large portion of the human race on a retrospection of the British occupation of India, let me next be permitted to address the statesman with reference to the said occupation in a—

Political Aspect. Territory (and most especially *maritime* possessions) wisely governed is power. When the nations of Europe, at the commencement of the seventeenth century, started into active competition for dominion, and nearly half the globe was divided by treaty between two of England's most violent religious and political opponents;*—England must either have been content to remain as a petty island, or enter into the strong contest for power which then arose between Spain, France, Holland, Portugal, &c. Happily for England, the wise Elizabeth then swayed its destinies, her prophetic mind foresaw the coming events of ages, and with a noble patriotism rarely equalled, seldom or never

* The first stipulation of this extravagant agreement was, that *all new found* countries to the north of the Canaries should belong to Spain, and all southward to Portugal. A treaty was subsequently signed and sanctioned by Pope Julius II. by which the meridian of demarcation was removed 270 leagues farther west, in favour of Portugal!

excelled, the whole energies of this highly gifted woman, were turned to the acquisition of maritime dominion for England; suffice it here to say, that the first East India Company charter was not merely granted by Elizabeth, but its success promoted by every means in her power; on the demise of one of England's greatest sovereigns—her colonial policy and principles (with few omissions) were continued down to the present generation, and as Britain's maritime empire extended, whether in the east, or in the west, in the north, or in the south, her power and her glory, and I trust her wisdom became wonderfully enlarged. The opposition of Portugal, of Spain, of Holland, of France, of indeed all our enemies successively sunk—diminished—became to us as nought, as we rose in maritime possessions; the balance of power in—as well as the battles of—Europe, were regulated, and fought in our colonies and on the ocean; and England after contending against all Europe single handed, not for pre-eminence, but for her very existence as an independent kingdom, became the arbitress of the destinies of the world.

COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS.—If the two foregoing reasons be in favour of our occupation of the Eastern Colonies, what shall we say with reference to them in a mere *mercantile* point of view?* Let the reader place the map of Asia before him; at the central extremity of that splendid continent, most admirably situate for maritime or internal commerce, he will find the Anglo-Indian Empire, and around it several million square miles of the richest territory, teeming with upwards of FIVE HUNDRED MILLION of industrious and comparatively civilized human beings! What a prospect for English commerce—for British industry and capital—does such a scene present; nations of various colours, creeds and languages, rich to overflowing with every tropical product;—for whose advantage earth, air and ocean seem combined to pour forth their inexhaustible treasures, and who offer in ex-

* The connection of England with her transmarine possessions—political, social, and commercial, will be amply developed in my 'Colonial Policy.'

change for the manufactures and productions of our temperate zone—silk, cotton, sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, spices, fruits, timber, corn, oils, colours, drugs, dyes, wool, iron, tin, copper, gold, silver, &c. &c., in boundless profusion—in limitless quantities!

Heretofore we have almost spurned the bounteous offerings of an ever-beneficent Providence;—by fiscal laws we have nearly shut out from England the productions of half the earth, and thus madly increased domestic poverty; but it is to be hoped that a better system is now commencing; we have *reduced the import duty* on some Colonial articles, and if the principle be just in regard to minors, how much more so is it in reference to the great articles of traffic which enter into the consumption of the bulk of the people.

That this great step *(the reduction of import duties on Colonial produce)* will ere long be accomplished I have every hope of; I look not despairingly on the present commercial position of England, on the contrary, I see every thing around me to cheer and excite the most languid spirit; I witness a great and glorious moral revolution in Britain,—I behold the only security for the maintenance of an Empire—popular representation, aided by a free press—renovated and extended;* I view with inexpressible delight the spread of education, which, though primarily superficial, will become ultimately profound;—I exult in the liberal principles which are being established in our maritime possessions, the invigorating shout of which is re-echoed across the Atlantic, and I glory in the prospects of freedom for our colonial commerce, so capable of rendering us independent of the whole world,—of giving profitable employment to our half-starved population, thus renovating the social fabric at its base, and making England more secure in her dominion over the ocean,—more

* Let me be understood as hoping, that if on the one hand democratic principles are being extended, so on the other the Kingly office should be strengthened; a balance must be maintained between the Crown and the people, and for the sake of the latter it is absolutely necessary to preserve the former efficient.

powerful for the protection of the oppressed,—more wealthy for the relief of the poor,—more thoroughly efficient for disseminating the boundless blessings of the gospel.

Babylon—Nineveh—and Rome—fell from their high estate, leaving no traces of their past glory but in their name;—*their* empire was TERRITORIAL,—their government that of the *few*, —their knowledge unaided by the press, their precepts unguided by Christianity; not thus is it with the British Empire,—her dominion is MARITIME,—her Government that of the *many*,—her people's voice heard in every corner of the earth through the press,—and her endeavours for the spread of religion every where crowned with propitious prospects. Have we then cause to think the British Empire has passed its meridian, and now hastens towards the twilight of existence? No! unless freedom,—unless knowledge,—unless Christianity be the stepping stones to annihilation. On our empire the sable curtain of night is never complete, for while the bright luminary of the heavens is temporarily unillumining the skies of Albion, it is but to shed light and life on another section of our wondrous social frame; may this astronomical phenomenon be typically that of our national history,—may the sun of Britain's glory never set in eternity until the great globe itself shall have passed away,—and may our maritime dominion (under the auspices of HIM alone to whom power and dominion belong) become more and more consolidated, forming unto futurity that prophesied kingdom, whose branches and roots will extend over the habitable earth for the exaltation and happiness of man.

APPENDIX A.

OFFICIAL AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS TO VOL. I.

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES [SECOND EDITION.]

No. 1.—Names of Zemindars and their Estates, and of Pergunnas, under the Khass Management of the Rajah of Singbhoom.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries and Pergunnahs.	Total No. of Villages in each Estate and Pergunnah.	Inhabitants.	Supposed No. of Armed Force on each Estate or Pergunnah.	Amount of Mulgoozarie, payable to the Rajah.	Local Situation with reference to rest of Districts.
Ahie Sing Rajepoot.	Sumujhur or Anundpoor.	84	Chiefly Coles.	600	The Coles of the Rajahs and other Pergunnahs entered into engagements to pay 8 annas per plough by a written engagement given to Major Roughside. Their payments are very irregular, and in many Pergunnahs nothing is collected. A trifling quit rent was fixed to be paid by his Zemindars, *not his relations, but it is collected with great irregularity.*	N.E. Pergunnah of Singbhoom. These 5 Pergunnahs extend in order put down from W. to E. along the northern face of the Singbhoom. Kursava continues the line of the northern face, and Doojnie of Serickele form the north-east ern face of Singbhoom.
Rajah's Khass management.	Giergo.	84	Almost exclusively Coles.	700		
Ditto ditto.	Poorahath.	84	Great majority of inhabitants Coles.	500		
Rajah Koomkum Sing Booya.	Bundgaun.	84	Some Booyas, but the majority Coles.	700		
Kimcloo Pater Booya.	Koric Pela.	84	Majority of inhabitants Booyas, but amongst them some Coles.	800		
Locknanth Sing Rajepoot, and relation of Rajah.	Kera.	84	Chiefly Cole inhabitants.	600		
A six anna share of this belongs to the Rajah, and 10 annas share to Ghassie, Sing Rajah's relation.	Goomla.	84	Inhabited by Coles exclusively	4000		Goomla with Siree Kela Gora Sing and part of Jeyntgarh, from the Eastern face of Singbhoom.
Rajah's Khass management.	Jeyutpoor.	120	With the exception of Seyut itself all the Villages are inhabited by Coles.	5000		The two Pergunnahs form the S. E. S. and S. W. face of Singbhoom.
Oostung Rajah.	Smadha.	250 reputed	Cole inhabitants alone.	Little or nothing almost known of this Estate.		
Chucker Dee Sing.	Koteghur.	12	Cole inhabitants only.	500		These Talooks with Sammyghan make the Western face of Singbhoom.
Under Rajahs.	Kelenowa.	12	Ditto ditto.	500		
Khass management.	Gomerea.	40	Ditto ditto.	700		
Ditto ditto.	Gopinathpore.	12	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Adjoodea.	12	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Nutoon.	12	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Jundha.	12	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Juggunauth.	60	Ditto ditto.	3500		
Ditto ditto.	Chuckerdepore	60	Bramins Koomist Coles.	500		
Bulbudder Dundpal.	Chorie.	12	Coles generally, and a few Booyas.	400		These with Assembereu of Kursawa, the central Pergonnah of Singbhoom.
Rajah's Khass management.	Gorindpoor.	12	Coles inhabitants	400		
Cheyt Chunder Mahapater.	Chirrepore.	24	With exception of a few Booyas, Cole inhabitants.	500		

No. 2.—List of Zumeendars and their Estates of the Khalsah of Sumbhulpore paying Rent to the Rannee.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Estates.	Number of Villages Inhabited held by each.	Armed force on each Estate at present.	Amount of Mulgoozaru payable by each to Rannee.
				S. R. A. P.
Abdoot Sing . .	Bissi Kela . . .	71, Right bank of the Mahanuddie . .	200	562 8
Trelochun Rae .	Pahar Sirgerra . .	6, Do. Do. .	60	76 ..
Bulbudder Rae .	Luckenpore Banda, &c.	24, Do. Do. .	250	300 ..
Loba Sing . .	Kursul . . .	9, Do. Do. .	150	284 ..
Mednie Berrya .	Khemnoonda . .	6, Do. Do. .	150	178 2
Sree Ram . .	Roosra and Jehapore .	18, Do. Do. .	..	75 ..
Bhowany Sing .	Burpallie . . .	40, Do. Do. .	400	356 ..
Remmallie Ghenowta	Colubera . . .	42, Left bank Do. .	300	825 ..
Byjinnath Do. .	Lera	12, Do. Do. .	100	225 ..
Nurhurrie . .	Rampore . . .	42, Do. Do. .	150	262 8
Durravrou Roud .	Borapara . . .	3, Do. Do. .	30	36 ..
Arjoon Ghurrowtie	Ghur Lohil Sing .	9, Do. Do. .	100	112 ..
Seonath Rae . .	Roorlebugga and Buneapullie . . .	11, Do. Do. .	200	.. .. 75 6
				3,267 10

The remaining Villages of Kalsah are under the Bhannies Khass management.

No. 3.—Zemindars of Gangpoor.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Estates.	Number of Villages inhabited held by each.	Military Strength.	Amount of Mulgoozarie Payable to Ganjipore Rajah.
				S R. A. P.
Nurhurrie Ghurrowtea .	Surruf Ghur Rajah Behal .	16	75	10 .. ..
Anjloo Gurrowtea . .	Surruf Ghur	7	30	30 .. ..
Mooroo Manjee . .	Hemjee	19	200	80 .. ..
Ghassie Ghunowtea .	Bansghur	12	50	30 .. ..
Ghoojarrie Manjie . .	Nija	11	40	20 .. ..
Joojar Manjie . .	Subdya	3	15	50 .. ..
Bhugwan Manjie . .	Moorkya and Tillea .	17	150	100 .. ..
Bhun Sing Manjie .	Mohulgaon . . .	1	10	40 .. ..
				360

The rest of the Villages are divided amongst the Rajah's Relations, and under the Rajah's Khass Management.

No. 4.—A List of Zemindars of Autmullick.

Names of Zemindars and Mullicks.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages Inhabited held by each.
Zemindar Nemdoo Roonnie and Mullick Mudoo . . .	Oorooda .	22
Zemindar Sudasoo Ghurrowtea and Mullick Dergoo . .	Bamur . .	5
Zemindar Kushnoo Deree Mullick Pindoo	Sunjumora .	7
Zemindar Kurrya Purdhan Mullick Suma	Mendool .	9
Zemindar Ruttee Deree Mullick Mudoo	Tamsahi .	6
Zemindar Sabnath Buga Mullick Gundupoo	Dola Singo .	4
Zemindar Mukindee Biswal Mullick Nunloo . . .	Rannie Band .	8
Zemindar Ruttie Ball and Kadassie Berwal Mullick Luchie	Pyee and Cool	12

No. 5.—List of Estates and Zumeedaries under the Superintendence of the Agent of the S. W. Frontier.

Considerable Chiefs' Names.	Names of Chiefs formerly dependents of the Rajahs of Sumbhulpoor, Patna, Board, Singbhoom and Sirgoojee, now independent of them, owing obedience only to the Hon. Company.	Names of Estates or Zumeedaries.	Number of Villages on each Estate.	Estimated extent of Country. Length.	Estimated extent of Country. Breadth.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Military Strength. Hired Soldiers. Cavalry.	Military Strength. Hired Soldiers. Infantry.	Military Strength. Hired Soldiers. Militia.	Tribute payable to the Honourable Company's Treasury. S. R.	A.	P.
Ranee Mohun Cooer Rajpootan.	.....	Sumbhulpore	787	80	50	52500	..	20	400	2000	19738	..	..
Formerly dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Rajah Prithee Sing Rajpoot.	Sohupoor	452	50	40	18000	..	6	100	2500	6000	..	..
Formerly dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Rajah Jugger Deo Sicker Rajpoot.	Gangpoor	248	100	36	4000	..	..	12	55	468	12	..
Formerly dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Raja Sing Rou Sing Goud.	Saringhur	194	30	24	7000	..	..	42	1200	1312	..	..
Formerly Dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Rajah Juder deo Rajepoot.	Bonie	84	40	300	2000	..	..	..	400	37	8	..
Formerly Dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Rajah Loval deo Rajepoot.	Bomra	400	160	50	5000	..	..	..	100	218	12	..
Formerly Dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Bishenchundee Jye Rajepoot, not pure.	Reracole	250	35	14	6000	..	..	..	2000	562	8	..
Formerly Dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Teje Koear Dewanee Gouden.	Suetee	56	25	15	1800	..	..	..	200	225	..	..
Formerly Dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Thakoor Ajeit Sing Goud.	Burgur	75	24	19	2000	..	..	..	400	300	..	..
Formerly Dependencies of Sumbhulpore.	Dajah Deovath Sah Goud.	Ryeghur	400	60	25	1500	..	..	..	2500	160	..	..
Formerly dependencies of Patna.	Rajah Bhopaul Deo Rajepoot.	Patna	*	80	50	6000	..	10	..	200	562	8	..
Formerly dependencies of Patna.	Rajah Rutting Sing Rajpoot.	Kungar	*	60	40	10000	..	12	..	300	1500	..	..
Formerly dependencies of Patna.	Rajah Prithie Shah Goud.	Bholger	200	60	40	1500	..	..	..	200	412	8	..
Formerly dependencies of Patna.	Rajah Ackbee Sah Goud.	Nowaghur	84	120	40	3000	..	..	..	500	375	..	..
Rajah Chunder Sicker Rajepoot.	.....	Borasamber Boad	271	40	20	3000	..	..	..	1500	150	..	..
Formerly a dependency of Bond.	Ramdyal Baryc.		*	120	40	8000	..	..	..	1000	750	..	..
Rajah Achait Sing Rajepoot.	Sushunder Sawaset Rajepoot.	Antwallick	150	60	12	4000	..	..	..	1000	450	..	..
Formerly dependencies of Singbhoom.	.....	Singbhoom	1238	64	64	—	..	..	100	..	100	..	..
Ammale Sing Rajepoot.	Ajumber Sing Koear Rajepoot.	Sirriekela	300	40	16	7000	..	10	..	2000	Pays Tribute to none	..	..
Oomer Sing Rajah Rajepoot.	.....	Korea	278	—	34	1256	..	..	25	400	362	..	..
This Zemindar pays tribute to Surgogee Rajah, but is otherwise independent, Jushpoor 800 Sa. Rs.	.....	Surgoojah	970	140	108	11150	..	10	100	..	3000	..	..
This Zemindar pays tribute to Surgooja Rajah, but is otherwise independent, Dadepoor 500 Sa. Rs.	Ram Sing.	Jushpoor	359	70	60	6000	..	..	50	2000	..	..	..
	Deerage Sing.	Oodeypoor	131	70	46	3000	..	..	25	1000	..	..	..

* Number not ascertained.

No. 6.—Zemindars of Korea.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries and Pergunnahs.	No. of Villages held by each.	Amount of Mulgoozaree payable to the Rajah.		
			S. R.	A.	P.
Rutten Sing Gond	Kurgaon	84	350	..	..
Durgoo Sing	Patna	53	162	..	..
Beersat	Juggulpoor	6	42	..	..
Alimsah Gond	Burbespoor	6	42	..	..
Beersah Pap	Surrowlie	6	25	..	..
Puhlad Pap	Harrie Muttee	6	25	..	..
Brittinnee Sing Gond	Marrour	12	60	..	..
Pursaad Sing Gond	Kuchour	8	25	..	..
Lallah Pap	Kullarie	11	100	..	..
Sunkersah Rajepoot	Kusgaon	25	100	..	..
Adject Sing Dewan	Addadarrie	23	80	..	..
Mohiput Sing Lalloo	Amru	5	25	..	..
Rajah Ram	Buggowlie	8	20	..	..
			1,056	..	..

No. 7.—Names of Zemindars, Jagheerdars, and their Estates of Surgoojah paying Rent and subject to Rajah Oomer Sing.

Names of Zemindars and Jagheerdars.	Names of Estates.	Number of inhabited Villages held by each.	Estimated Armed Forces on each Estate.	Amount of Malgoozarie paid by each to Oomer Sing.
Lall Bishesween Buksh, Brother of the Rajah.	Rampoor	96	300	It is not known how much, if anything, is paid by the brother to the Rajah.
Baee Sing	Ramcola	57	400	Rs. 566
Dripnath Sah, Zemindar	Jellmillie	84	400	401
Runnie Kemchun Koai, Wife of Rajah's Cousin.	Puharbarilla	76	300	292
Puddennath Sing, relation of Rajah.	Kundoo	84	400	401
Prithee Pab Sing, Zemindar	Poll	69	500	875
Dewan Rugoober Sing, ditto	Palka	63	600	150
Gujroop Sing, ditto	Kotesarree	11	100	51
Govindnath Sah, ditto	Loondra	27	200	401
Heinath Sah, Uncle of Rajah, ditto.	Surwa, Fatta Panee.	47	300	201
Bowany Buksh, Brother of Rajah, ditto.	Chitgalla, Mungulpoor	97	400	301
Ram Sing, Rajah's Uncle	Beluspoor	100	100	not known.
Balram Bartee, Zemindar	Chano, &c.	31	100	110
Oodenath Sing, relation of Rajah.	Murwa	11	50	160
Ogar Sing, Zemindar	Rajiketa	23	150	163
				4,072

[I am induced to give these details because they have never before been printed, and have recently arrived from India;—and 2ndly, because they show the exceedingly complicated nature of the British sway in the East.]

No. 8.—List of the Roudwan Estates under the Agency, specifying the Names of their Estates and Number of Villages therein.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages on each Estate.	What authority acknowledged by them.
Khullyan Bhooree .	Kodoorka .	12	Sonepore Rajah.
Josagsohie Manjee .	Toork . .	15	This man acknowledges no superior, and pays no rent to any one.
Not ascertained . .	Boorghur .	7	This man obeys Ruttoo Millick of Punchora, but payment to no one.
Durtu Kooar . .	Mullick Puddu of Bulwenada	18	Obeys Ruttoo Mullick's orders, but pays nothing, and formerly used to perform services for Sompore Rajah.
Chuttoo Dereа and Mumglol Mullick .	Armool .	10	Obeys Rutto Mullick, but pays to none, Armool is in the Boad Raje, but formerly obeyed the Sonepore Rajah.
Thannoo Mullick .	Chunmakoor	8	Obeys Ruttoo Mullick, but pays nothing, Estate in Boad Raje.
Ramdoo Manjee .	Surmoonda	10	Obeys Rutto Mullick, but pays nothing, Estate in Boad Raje.
Ruttoo Mullick . .	Punchora .	30	The Zemindar was long deprived of this Estate by Sonepore Rajah, but it has been restored to him; he engaged to pay tribute to Sonepoor Rajah, but he has a great dread of him until the fear is mutual.
Damodur Kooar . .	Barrapallee	10	Sonepoor Rajah, and under compiete controul.
Ahie Manjee . .	Kumsurra	20	Ditto Ditto.
Doondee Manjee .	Gowka .	12	Under Patna Rajah.
Seeroo Pater Manjee .	Toopa .	15	Ditto Ditto.
Sabboo Manjee . .	Soon . .	12	Ditto Ditto.
Dicksun Bhovee .	Boorka .	15	Ditto Ditto.
Alum Bovee . .	Boorboocha	7	Ditto Ditto.
Ditto	Suder Kallie	2	Ditto Ditto.
Arjoon Kooar . .	Mohoora .	10	This is in Patna, and forms part of the Appanage of Joograje Sing, the Rajah's brother.
Gunga Bhooee . .	Purdonnie .	5	Ditto Ditto.
Burkrai Manjee . .	Kutunga .	8	Ditto Ditto.
Bubuoo Mullick . .	Oordool .	10	This man will obey no one.
Gudda Mullick . .	Baghye .	10	Under the Boad Rajah.
Oosta Mullick . .	Suth Mullick	7	Ditto Ditto.
Bagwan Sahoo . .	Burra Mullick	12	Ditto Ditto.
			Ditto Ditto.

No. 9.—Names of Zemindars of Oodeypoor and their Estates.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages on each Estate inhabited.	Amount of Mulgoozaric.		
			S. R.	A.	P.
Ackber Sah	Chal . .	19	120	.8	..
Bhowany Sing	Kundeya .	15	126	12	..
Ram Sing	Jumooreya .	9	126	12	..
Sobah Sing	Byraghur .	4	72	..	..
Govind Sing	Sulga . .	4	72	..	..
Bomund Race	Pattergaun .	2	34	..	..
Jyamungul Sing	Ginda . .	5	72	..	..
Dome Sah	Pohree . .	7	48	6	..
Mungal Sah	Gotee . .	5	60	..	..
Chundun Sing	Chundahur .	8	61	..	..

No. 10.—Names of Zemindars of Jushpoor and of their Estates.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages on each Estate.	Amount of Mulgoosarie payable to Rajah Ram Sing.		
			S. R.	A.	P.
Lall Sah Manjee . . .	Astah . .	6	60	..	..
Keera Sah Naick . . .	Jukutteah .	18	300	..	..
Huimulnath Gunjoo . .	Dookumra .	1	150	..	..
Brij Raji Sah	Pootinga .	14	..	.	..
Gutta Patter	Persa . .	7	100	..	..
Agen Sah	Kond Para .	9	125	..	..
Dhurnnardem Deree . .	Soondro .	4	30	..	..
Goodoo Dunsenna . . .	Sookerra .	4	30	..	..
Bechoo Sah and Chunnie Sah .	Kuchea . .	14	150	..	..
Berryar Sing	Kerudeehee .	22	300	..	..
Annund Ram Doodhya . .	Pohree . .	4	60	..	..
Bode Sing Hooar . . .	Jummudeekee	20	150	..	..
Memnyar Sing . . .	Koorya . .	73	450	..	..
			1905	..	..

No. 11.—The following are the more savage Class of Koards.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages in each District.	Authority acknowledged by them.	
Servie Mullick	Bunoo . .	40	Boad Rajahs.	To South of Boad.
Bishen Beesee	Bundhur .	100	Ditto.	Ditto.
Sabia Naick	Bulus Koopra	125	Ditto.	
Muttra Naick	Dum Sing .	50	Ditto.	
Ghassie Mullick	Puttabar .	12	Ditto.	To East of Boad.
Govinda Mullick and Puma Mullick	Burgoocha .	25	Ditto.	
Madoo Kooar and Nubgan Kooar	Armiegar .	50	Ditto.	Ditto.
Sulka Mullick and Pundee Kooar .	Kofabagh .	15	Ditto.	To South of Boad.
Dyotee Naick	Doopie Suger	25	Ditto.	

APPENDIX B.

LIST OF SIRDARS AND PROPRIETORS IN THE PROTECTED SIKH STATES WHOSE AGENTS OR VAKEELS RESIDE PERMANENTLY AT THE AMBALCH OFFICE.

Rajah of Puteala.
Bbaee of Rythut.
Rajah of Nabah.
Rajah of Jhund.
Rajah of Memnee Muzra.
Rajah of Sirmoor.
Rajah of Ruhlore.
Rajah of Nallae Gurh.
Sirdar Sheer Sing of Shahabad.
Sirdar Sheer Sing of Shealbeh.
Raees of Mulair Kotila Ameer Ali Khan.
Sirdar Ajeet Sing of Sudwah.
Sirdar Ameer Sing Singpooreah.
Soodies Ran Sing and Runjeet Sing.
Raees of Roongpooreh Nawal Golam Ali Khan.
Sirdar Nihal Sing of Indree.
Furreh Raz Khan of Mullair Rotila.
Duleer Khan of Ditto.
Sadhee Dedar Sing.
Sadhee Dewan Sing.
Gooroo Bishea Sing.
Bahadur Ali Shah Tuskh.
Sirdar Goolah Sing Shahah of Shagadpoor.
Sirdar Sohah Sing Rulsea and Chickrowlee.
Sirdar Reure Sing of Bussee.
Sirdar Sahib Sing of Dunawhreh.

Sirdar Goodiah Sing Singpooreah.
Malung Khan Kolelawalch.
The Kotch Khanah Singhs.
Rehmut Ali Khan of Mulair Kotila.
Sirdar Futteh Sing Allowaleah.
Sirdars Futteh Sing and Mit Sing of Malode.
The Sings of Dhonsee.
Sirdah Migh Sing of Baoreah.
Sadhee Ootum Sing.
Sirdar Goovidial Sing of Rungpore.
Sirdar Jemyit of Thanesur (his Widows.)
Bhopal Sing Singpooreah.
Sirdar Mehtaub Sing of Sikree.
Sirdar Ram Sing of Gadowlee.
Sindarnee Maun Juanse of Thanesur.
Nawab Golam Mohansun Khan of Koongporeh.
Nooron Nissa of Raee Kote.
Sindarnee Prunkoner (Widow of Sirdar Punjaub Sing of Thanesur.)
Mih Sing and Jait Sing of Choornee.
Meer Akber Alee Khan of Kotakee and Mornee.
Sirdar Dral Sing Singpooreah of Kindawlee.
Maeen Gunran of Mustafahat.
Sirdarnee Nund Koner of Pooreah.
Sirdar Bhoop Sing Rooher.
Sirdar Golaub Sing of Bursaul.
Sirdar Khoshal Sing of Bursaul.
Sirdar Hummer Sing of Salpore.
Sirdarne Sahib Koner of Nunsin.
Sirdar Purtab Sing of Junpore.
Sirdar Maun Sing of Kheira.
Sirdar Futteh Sing of Hullahir.
Sirdarne Latchmem Koner of Ferozepoor.
Sirdarne Ramkoner of Chiloundee.
Mata Raj Kone Sadhum.
Sirdar Dun Sing of Indree.
Sirdar Sohah Sing Nahemy (his Widow).
Sirdarnee Sookhur of Booreah.
Sirdar Hurnaum Sing of Buheal.
Sirdar Jut Sing of Sudh (Lam Singhea).
Golaub Sing Ingdowle.
Sirdar Uezier Sing of Naglee.
Sirdar Hurdial Sing Singpooreah.
Butwunt Khan of Mulair Kotila.
Hummut Khan of Mulair Kotila.
Muan Davee Sing of Ram Gurh.
Sirdar Nehab Sing of Kurnur.
Sultan Alee Khan (his Widow).
Mean Narain Doss of Ram Gurh.
Sirdars Rajah Sing Whoop Sing and the Sudhuran Sings.
Bhaee Golaub Sing of Arrowlee.
Sirdarnee Ruttum Knar of Bhore.
Mehtamb Sing of Laloo Kheree.
Summan Koner Metailvallee.
Sirdar Juggut Sing of Badhour.
Sirdar Ram Sing of Burrass.
Sirdar Futteh Sing of Dhun.
Puttidars of Shahabad.
Sudhee Futteh Sing.
Dya Sing Shurheid of Tunkore.
Tyz Futtey Khan of Koutaub.
Sirdars Bhoop Sing and Ulbail Sing of Bydwan.
The Putteedars of Belospore.
Sardarnees of Khurwan.
Sirdar Nigh Sing of Kokur.
Mohur Sing Mun Sing and other Puttedars of Boh.
Nizam Alee Kham of Khoonpoorah.
Sadhee Fouzdar Sing.
Sirdar Seurin Sing of Malade.
Sadhee Khan Sing.
Sirdar Khan Sing of Choonee Machlie.
Maun Koar of Budhul.
Sirdars Hummur Sing and Futteh Sing of Jug Dowlee.
Sadhee Burpoor Sing.
The Bur Khan Sing.
Sirdar Sooth Sing Nahung of Poorkhalee.
Sirdar Oongar Sing of Seamdra.
Sholam Numble Khan of Koongpooreah.
Sirdar Futteh Sing of Pubbaut.
Sirdar Bhood Sing of Bulloro (his Widow).
The Affghans of Kheserabad.
Bustrah Sing of Tuplep.
Sirdar Lal Sing Suspooreah of Baonjee.
The Mahar of Kean Sings.
Bhaee Mihr Sing of Inonseh.
Sirdar Nadh Sing Kahur of Poawut.
Synd Gholam Imaum of Subeh.
Sirdar Tug Sing of Piehoura.
Jewun Sing of Meloheb.
Futteh Sings and other Sings of Betch.
Sultan Beebee.
Sirdar Deva Sing of Sham Gurh.
Maee Dhurrna of Futteh Gurh.
Sirdar Ruttum Sing of Burree.
Sobha Sing and Soobha Sing of Dheen.
Hummeer Sing Boodh Sing and Suntee.
Sirdar Runjeet Sing of Shahabad.
Purtaub Sing of Buddul.
The Jamehrun Singhs.
Sirdarne Kurrum Koner of Fundwul.
Sirdarne Jeersun of Balehupper.
The Jubbulbeam Singhs.

The Akul Gurreah Singhs.
The Sadnpendaun Singhs.
Jooh Singhs Bugwalla.
The Huhutpoor Singhs.
Bhee Goormookh Sing Bayree Wallah.
Sirdarnee Sing of Nahawnee.
Kugan Singh of Mahaunee.
Dysoo Sing of Choorealoo.
Sirdar Gopaul Sing Memarnee.
Sirdar Rahn Sing of Shahabad.
Sirdar Puhar Sing of Funeel Kote.
Sirdarnee Maun Koner of Hutteereh.
The Chandhurdeh Singhs.
The Sooteera Singhs.
The collected Sham Singhuali Singhs.
The Gorun Ghur Singhs.
Mahee Dheurma of Trerul.
Dewun Sing of Meanpoore.
Sholam Russool Khan of Koongpooreh.
Muta Raj Koner Dewan Sing and others of Nundpoor Makpoowal.
Solum Mohuddee Khan and Solam Koder Khan of Kotila.
Futteh Sing and Bhoop Sing of Keeree.

APPENDIX C.

Pensioner.	Pension.		Residence.	
	£.	s.		
Maharaja Benaik Row	700,000	..	Terowah	The Son of Amrut Rao. This Pension will cease with the present incumbent.
Nuwal of Banda Toolpean Ali	400,000	..	Bunda	Hereditary.
Rajah Jubbems Geer	6,882	12	Do.	
Kesho Geer	7,821	6	..	These Pensions were granted to the Representatives of Raja Humut Behadur Kimwur Goonrow Sing, and Raja Delawur Junga.
Koomwur Raj Gur	4,844	4	..	
Koonwur Gunja Burch	1,582	2	..	
Humeerpooree, Paruchutpooree, Nonceporee	792	..	..	
Koonwur Juggut Geer	7,260	..	..	Part of the Pension of Koonwur Kunchem Geer, Chullah of Hummut Bahadur.
Koonwur Mehaudur Geer	3,600	..	..	Brother of Juggut Geer.
Maan Koonwur	240	..	..	This Pensioner is the Mother of Juggut Geer, and the Pension will revert to him on her demise.
Koonwur Devijur	3,900	..	..	The heir of Koonwur Kumpta Geer.
Loon Koonwur	2,400	..	..	Part of Kunchem Geer's Pension, Widow of Ramjeer and Mother of Mookrend Geer.
Akelah Begum	3,000	..	..	This pension will, on the present holder's demise, revert to Juggut Geer, Concubine of Kunchum Geer.
Daiput Rao	1,200	..	..	Performed useful service to the Agent during the Rebellion of Luchrum.
Thakoordus Deo	600	..	..	Singh of Adjeigurh.

APPENDIX D.

List of Allied and Protected States and Jagheers connnected with the Political Agency of the N. E. Frontier.

Number.	Chiefs Protected States, Jagendars.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of being collected.	Inclination to the British Government; hostile or otherwise.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Contribution to the Government
1	Munnipore	6,200 square miles.	400	Under 10,000 rupeees.	3,300 regulars, capable of increase to 10,000.	Friendly.	50,000 Souls.	Nothing.

Number.	Chiefs Protected States, Jagheers.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of being collected.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Contribution to the Government
2	Synteh	3,433 square miles.	400	Equal to 1 lac of rupees.	About 200 Infantry.	Friendly.	276,000 Souls.	Nothing.

No. 3.—TIPPERAH.—In addition to his Zemindaree, in the Plains of Comillah, paying revenue of about 150,000 rupees fixed under the perpetual settlement, the Rajah of Tipperah possesses an extensive but ill-known tract of hill territory to the eastward, which may be estimated to contain 600 square miles. The information respecting this quarter is, however, much too vague and uncertain to warrant any calculations as to the population, number of villages, or revenue, arising from it. From personal observation, however, I can state that the part of Tipperah claimed as independent is not all hilly, but includes many level well-watered vallies, admirably suited for agriculture; but which are, in general, neglected and wholly unoccupied, owing to the unwillingness of the low lands to subject themselves to the rapacity and tyranny of the Rajah and his officers; a few spots, however, as at Anger Collah and Killaisur, are under cultivation, and might, if assessed, yield a revenue to the state of about 5,000 rupees.

No. 4.—NORTHERN CACHAR.—Under this designation I include the mountainous country recently held by Tooleram, the chieftain whom I have found it necessary to arrest with a view to bring him to trial for the murder of two of the inhabitants of the country of Dhurumpore, now held in attachment by a Sazawul deputed for that purpose by Mr. Scott. This region does not appear of sufficient importance in any point of view to merit particular notice. Its inhabitants, I understand, belong chiefly to the Cacharee and Maree tribes, and are not more hostile than, from their relative position, it is natural to expect. Lieutenant Fisher is now engaged in forming an arrangement with them for the future government of this country, and this will, ere long, form the subject of a separate despatch.

Next to the states above detailed in the order of geographical progression, follows the confederation of petty chiefs by whom the Khoseat Mountains have hitherto been held.

These are said to be 30 in number; but it is unnecessary, with reference to the immediate object of this despatch, to enter into detail with regard to any but the following:—

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States, Jaghurdars.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Amount of Contribution to the Government.
5	Sing Munick, Chief of Kyrum.	Unascertained.	70	Precise Amount unascertained.	Unascertained.	About 3,000 armed followers.	Friendly.	Nothing.
6	Bur Munick Chief of the remaining portion of Kyum.	Do.	28	Unascertained.	Do.	400 or 500 followers.	Hostile.	Do.
7	Soba Sing, Raja of Churra.	Do.	25	Do.	About 30,000	2,000 followers.	Friendly.	Do.
8	Kala Raja, Chief of Nuspany.	Do.	About 30	Do.	Unascertained.	Unascertained.	Dubious.	Do.
9	Oomur Sing, Chief of Nusting.	Do.	Unascertained.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Hostile.	Do.
10	Oolar Raja of Murriow.	Do.	25	Do.	Do.	Do.	Dubious.	Do.
11	Omas Raja of Murram.	Do.	24	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.

Number.	Chiefs of protected States, Jagheers.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government.	Amount of Contribution to Government.
12	Singhoo Chief, Beesa Gaum.	East Maunapooree, West Do. North Do. South, now Dehing.	Unascertained.	Unascertained.	9,796	2,534	Friendly	60 Men.
13	Kamptee Chiefs, Suddea Khoaljah paye Sown Gahaya Renwa Gahayh.	Boundaries, E. Pusbrekatan, W. D. Mun Debang, N. Musynu Hills, S. Burhamputer.	Do.	Do.	4,000	1,000	Do.	100 Do.
14	Moamarya Chief Matebur Bursenaputa.	E. Chougharee, W. Booree Dehing, N. Lutict River, S. Booree Dehing.	Do.	16,000	96,000	24,000	Do.	300 Do.

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States, Jaghurdars.		Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Amount of Contribution to Government.
					Rup.				£. s.
15	Raja Whaduth Sing Dooar Sookee.	Desc. Land Peons.	Rooput, 7,701 Pooteet, 34,349	20	771	8,000	None.	Friendly.	4428
16	Raja Roynazar Sing Dooar Bongong.	Desc. Land Peons.	Rooput, 4,137 Pooteet, 6,669	38	4,137	5,000	None.	Friendly.	2450
17	Rajah Bullut Sing Dooar Murrapoor.	Desc. Land Peons.	Rooput, 893 Pooteet, 1,456	8	893	1,000	None.	Friendly.	5000
18	Raja Nurjan Sing Dooar Chugong.	Desc. Land Peons.	Rooput, 1,662 Pooteet, 6,586	24	1,662	1,500	None.	Friendly.	1000
19	Raja Boharum Sing of Rannee.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 5,653 Pooteet, 10,556	51	5,653	5,500	10	Friendly.	3486 8
20	Raja Lumbadur Narain Duish Baillullah.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 3,493 Pooteet, 12,269	42	3,493	3,500	None.	Friendly.	1694 8
21	Raja Ramsing Daish Myhung	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 883 Pooteet, 6,329	4	883	1,000	None.	Friendly.	604
22	Raja Boodah of Daish Pauboooree.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 456 Pooteet, 2,345	3	456	700	None.	Friendly.	363

No. 23.—BOOTAN.—From Chardour, in Lower Assam, to the country of the Sikhem Puttee our frontier, for an extent of about 200 miles, touches that of Bootan. Along the line a tract of the low lands, originally acquired perhaps by sufferance, has gradually become the unquestioned right of this state; on it, indeed, they appear to be entirely dependent for grain, as the population is described as being considerable, and far beyond what they could raise food for in the narrow vallies of their own hills. This circumstance places it in our power, in case of a rupture, to reduce Bootan to our terms by merely shutting the doars or passes during the cold season, and preventing its subjects from coming to the plains or receiving any supplies therefrom. Should it prove further necessary to retain the tract of low land in our own possession, the consequent expense might be met by the establishment of hants or markets, on the principle of those in the Goulparagh district, which, on the Bootan frontier, would prove a most plentiful source of revenue.

Of the internal state of Bootan, little more is known now than may be gathered from Captain Turner's Narrative of his Embassy to Thibet, in 1783. A more recent account of the country may probably have been given to the world by Mr. Manning, who lived for a long time at Lassa; but this I have not the means of ascertaining.

I hope, while in Assam, to be able to collect much more information; but I can now add little to what is in print.

The envoys who recently visited me at Cherra were men of low rank and little intelligence. From what I could gather from them, it does not appear that the Chinese exercise a much greater influence than they did in Turner's time, either

over the undying superior, the Dhurram Rajah or Sama, or his mortal vassal, the Deb Rajah or immediate ruler of Bootan.

The Booteas are notoriously an unwarlike race, and, from the little which I have seen of their demeanour towards us, I am inclined to think that they have less of the overweening arrogance of the demi-barbarian than might be expected from their political and moral situation. A rupture with this state will only be formidable as indicating that it has the countenance of another and greater power behind it.

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States, Jagheers.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Amount of Contribution to the Government.
24	Cooch Behur Rajah Hurrendranaryan.	N. to S. 45 miles, E. to W. 40 miles.	2000	700,000 Naraine rupees.	200,000 souls.	2000 thus computed; Chief Officers & Sepoys, 200; Burkundawzes, 1000; Shekaries, Bulwans, and Harcaries, 300.	Amicable.	Narany Rupees 99,665 in Siccas to 66,000.
25	Bejnee Rajah Judronarwy.	N. to S. 30 miles, E. to W. 35 miles.	100	2,000 Narya rupees.	10,000 souls.	100	Ditto.	Nothing
26	Dobingeree Hekal Luskur.	N. to S., say 10 miles, E. to W. 12 or 14 miles.	25	Unascertained.	5,000	600	Ditto.	700 S. R.
27	Chepauk Jobrah Lushken.	8 miles from N.E. to S.W., and 10 or 12 miles from S.E. to N.W.	10	Ditto.	2,000	250	Ditto.	200 S. R.
28	Nuzzeranah Mehal.	30 miles from N. to S., 15 or 20 E. to W.	21	Ditto.	10,000	2,500	Doubtful.	320 S. R.
29	Jurah.	N. to S. 20 or 25 miles, E. to W. 15 miles.	40	Ditto.	4,000	600	Ditto.	
30	Damrah.	N. to S. E. 40 or 45 miles, E. to W. about the same.	Unascertained.	Ditto.	10,000	2,500	Ditto.	

APPENDIX E.

NAMES OF THE CHIEFS IN THE PROTECTED SIKH STATES.*

Ballehupper. Mace Jawsan Surdarree.
Balap. Surdar Hurdiah Sing Singphoreah.
Beyree Saul. Khooshall Sing.
Bhurree. Ruttum Sing.
Bhurreeetgurh. Surdar Ameer Sing.
Boongur. Surdar Lall Sing Singpooreah.
Boorya. Surdaree Nund Koour, Surdar Goolal Sing, and Maig Sing.
Budhour. Surdar Khurreck Sing, Khezan Sing, Nidham Sing, and Juggut Sing.

* Extract Bengal Poll. Cons. 18th Nov. 1831, part of No. 36.

Bussee. Surdar Dewah Sing Kuleea.
Chelowadee. Maee Ram Koonwur Surdarnee.
Chichrowlee. Surdar Sobah Sing Kulsee.
Daon. Goroo Biskeen Sing.
Dheen. Surdar Futtah Sing.
Dheenaura. Surdar Sahil Sing.
Dyal Gurh. Surdarnee Sookha.
Feerozepoor. Surdarnee Suchmen Khoonwur.
Furreed Kote. Surdar Puhar Sing.
Futteh Ghur. Maee Dhurmoo, Grandmother of Sirdar Maigh Sing.
Goorha. Nehal Sing.
Chunawlee. Sirdar Bhopaub Sing Singhpooriah.
Gudawlee. Surdar Ram Sing.
Hilahur. Futteh Sing.
Hindoor. Rajah Ram Sing, Buhadur.
Indree. Nahal Singh, Soadh Singh, and Jowaher Singh.
Jeendh. Rajah Sunjeet Sing Buhardure.
Judowlee. Goolab Singh, Mohur Sing, Mehy Sing, and Futty Sing Sham Singheet.
Keythhul. Bhaee Oodah Sing Buhardur.
Kharre. Surdar Goolal Singh.
Koonjpoorah. Nawal Gholam Ullee Khan Bahadur, Gholam Mohyooddeen, Khan, Gholam Russood Khan, and Nizam Ulle Khan.
Kotta. Nehung Khan, Belwunt Khan, Gholum Mohyooddeen Khan, and Gholam Quadir Khan.
Kotta Mulliar. Newal Ameer Ulle Khan, Behmut Ullee Khan, Toorrehauz Khan, Feyzoolah Khan, Feezoolah Khan, Delaub Khan, Deebee Sooltan, Hummut Khan, Imam Ullee Khan.
Kootya. Seynd Jaffer Ullee Khan.
Khumdala. Surdar Dyab Sing Singhpooria.
Khurrur. Surdar Nihal Singh.
Lodooah. Surdar Ujeet Sing.
Ladoo. Surdar Jeel Sing.
Libhoonnaghee. Wuzzar Sing, Humer Sing, and Sham Singhees.
Machieware. Sodhee Ootum Singh.
Majra. Surdarnee Roopa Koour, Wife of Sabala Singh Nehung, deceased.
Mecanpore. Dewan Sing.
Moulee Sohon. Surdar Bhoop Sing, and Ulbeebee Sing, Badwans.
Moostafabad. Maee Gaurau.
Mulodh. Surdars Fetteh Sing, and Mrith Singh.
Muloah. Jewan Singh.
Munnee Majra. Rajah Goverdhun Sing Buhadur.
Munorly. Surdar Gopal Singh, Singhpooriah.
Nabal. Rajah Jeswunt Sing Bahadur.
Nahun (Hill States of Sirmore) Rajah Fuffteh purkas Rajpoot.
Nundpoor Makhabal. Mata Rajkoorun, Dewan Sing, Dudar Sing, Rum Singh, Runjeet Sing, Bhurpoor Sing, Ootun Sing, and Jewun Sing Soodhees.
Putiala. Maharaj Kurrum Sing, Mohundur Buhadar, and Koonwur Ujeet Sing.
Ramjurh. Means, Dhae Sing, and Narajimdas.
Ray Kote. Ranee Nooroonnisse.
Raypoor. Roy Goodial Sing, and Natha Sing.
Ropur. Surdar Bhope Singh.
Sayallah. Surdar Deurab Singh.
Seekree. Surdar Mefaub.

Sewarrah. Surdarnee Jussa Kour, Wife of Jussa Sing Birdwan, deceased.
Shahabad. Surdar Shair Sing, Surdar Runjeet Singh, Surdar Khan Sing, and the Widow of Khurrut Sing.
Sham Ghur. Dewah Singh, and Futteh Sing.
Shehadpoor. Surdar Golab Singh, Sheeheed.
Tingaur. Surdar Dyah Sing, Sheeheed.
Thannesur. Surdareer Jya Koour, and Chund Koour, and Surdar Jummyeel Sing.
Toondwal. Surdarnee, Karm Koour, Widow of Metaub Sing, Shuheel.
Teera. Mall Deurmo.
Ulhoo Sudar Futteh Sing.
Umanly. Bhae Goolab Sing, and Simjeet Sing.
Ullagurh. Surdar Goordial Sing.
Zeeampore. Pertaup Sing.

APPENDIX F.

List of undermentioned Protected Hill States under my superintendence with the estimated extent of Country belonging to each, supposed Revenue, Population, Armed Force, and Amount of Contribution to the Company's Treasury, agreeably to Mr. Secretary Swinton's Letter to the Address of the Agent Governor General at Dehly under date the 23d July, 1832.

Names.	Number of Pergunnahs.	Uncultivated.	Lands Cultivated. Regar or irrigated Ground.	Lands Cultivated. Bakal, or not irrigated Ground.	Supposed Amount of Annual Revenue.	Supposed Population. Inhabitants.	Supposed Number of Armed Followers.	Pays Tribute to British Government.	Well affected to the British Government.
Raj of Bashir, including Thackar wis Remartoe	22	15000	10000	..	140000	..	..	..	..
Deiartoo Nowrur Doo	..	..	..	..	..	150000	15000	..	Ditto
Beyonthut	11	10000	28000	..	20000	14000	1500	..	Ditto
Poondeer (Tributary to Beyonth)	1	1000	3000	..	3000	3000	400	..	..
Rain (Tributary to Beyonth)	1	2000	4000	..	2000	2000	150	..	Ditto
Kortie (Tributary to Beyonth)	5	5000	5000	..	4000	3000	100	..	Ditto
Goond (Tributary to Beyonth)	1	1000	1500	..	1000	1000	40	..	Ditto
Madham (Tributary to Beyonth)	6	700	2500	..	1500	1500	500	..	Ditto
Theny (Tributary to Beyonth)	8	1500	4000	..	4000	3500	150	..	Ditto
Joobal	18	2800	40000	..	20000	15000	15000	2520	Ditto
Balsum, including Barhoolee	5	2000	10000	..	6000	5000	500	1800	Ditto
Koomar Sain	11	10000	2000	..	12000	12000	1000	1440	Ditto
Budgie	10	10000	25000	..	30000	25000	4000	1440	Ditto
Bajhal	12	10000	6000	..	50000	40000	3000	3600	Ditto
Thomyar	2	1000	3500	..	3500	2500	200	180	Ditto
Kothar	6	4000	500	..	7000	7000	400	1088	Ditto
Muhlog	3	3000	10000	..	10000	13000	500	1440	Ditto
Gotruck	7	5000	6000	..	2000	2500	100	288	Ditto
Begah	3	2000	3000	..	4000	3000	200	180	Ditto
Bughat	4	3000	7000	..	5000	6000	400	..	Ditto
Munghal	2	300	1500	..	1000	1000	50	72	Ditto
Dhonootee	1	200	400	..	400	200	20	..	Ditto
Dharuic	7	500	3000	..	3500	3000	250	720	Ditto
Bughat sold to Raja of Potaila	6	10000	15000	..	14000	9000	1000	..	Ditto
Beyonthut ditto ditto	9	..	2537	..	5449	5635	200	540*	
Hurrowhee Sewa Subathos	3	..	1124	13398	4776	4487	..	1100†	
Kathai	5	..	463	..	1042	1220	50	1042‡	
Seedock	1	..	118	547	..	..	..	.. §	
Simola	1	..	..	227	464	450	..	464	Ditto
Total	174	265200	378642	14172	377625	336901	29260	37815	

* Retained Territory. † Resumed Territory. ‡ Chief being pensioned.
§ Retained Territory.

APPENDIX G.

Protected States, Jageerdars, and others in Bundlecund, given with a view of shewing the intricate Nature of the Anglo-Indian Government.

No.	States.	Capital.	Extent Square Miles.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Revenue.	Military Force.	
							Cavalry.	Infantry.
1	Teary	Oorcha	2160	640	192000	1000000	1200	4000
2	Datteah	Duttiah	850	380	120000	1200000	1000	4000
3	Jhansr	Jhansi	2922	956	286000	1200000	700	3000
4	Jaloun	Saloun	1480	518	190000	1500000	1500	2000
5	Sumpthur	Sumpthur	175	72	28000	500000	300	2000
6	Punnah	Punnah	688	1060	67500	800000	202	700
7	Adjugurh	Nyarhair	340	608	45000	300000	150	500
8	Jetpoor	Jeetpoor	165	150	16000	80000	60	300
9	Chukaree	Chukuree	880	259	81000	400000	300	1000
10	Bejawur	Bejawur	920	344	90000	400000	200	800
11	Lurchlah	Lurchlah	35	11	4500	50000	45	150
12	Burounda	Puthurkuha	237	75	24000	45000	30	300
13	Chutterpoor	Chetterpoor	1240	354	126000	400000	200	1000
14	Bowuner	Kodoura	127	52	18800	100000	21	200
15	Jesso	Jesso	180	79	24000	12800	7	125
16	Logasi	Logasi	29	11	3500	20000	15	125
17	Sugun	Jegnee	27	6	2800	15000	5	60
18	Rehut	Rehut	15	7	2500	20000	5	60
19	Behree	Behree	30	5	2500	30000	15	45
20	Alepoora	Alipoora	85	28	9000	60000	30	200
21	Gherouli	Ghirouli	50	18	5000	25000	40	100
22	Nowagoun	Nowagoun	16	4	1800	10000	7	40
23	Gourcar	Gourcar	76	19	7500	70000	30	100
24	Khuddee	Khuddie	22	5	2800	15000	7	20
25	Khampta	Rajurlch	1	1	300	1000	..	10
26	Foree Futtehpoor	Foree Futteppoor	36	14	6000	50000	25	350
27	Chirgaon	Chirgaun	25	10	3800	25000	10	400
28	Begna	Bigna	27	6	2800	1500	7	250
29	Dhouru	Dhouru	18	8	3000	16000	8	230
30	Puharee	Puharee	4	1	800	800	..	50
31	Paldeo	Paldeo	28	14	3500	1000	..	100
32	Nyagaon	Nyagaoon	30	15	5000	1000	..	100
33	Feraom	Feraom	12	5	2000	5000	..	30
34	Poorwa	Poorwa	12	6	1800	5000	..	30
35	Bhynsote	Bhynsote	8	2	3000	2500	..	15
36	Mukree	Mukree	10	5	1600	5000	..	30
37	Choobepore	Chobepoor	10	5	1600	5000	..	3
		Total	12918	5755	1378400	8381300	6087	22430

Note.—The independent chieftains of Bundlecund have, during a long course of years, and at the periods when the British Government was engaged in protracted warfare with other states, invariably shown their attachment to British supremacy. During the Mahratta war of 1817–18, the protection of the numerous passes, or Ghauts, into the province, was entrusted to them. During the Burmese war, not merely were offers to assist with their forces submitted, but the commissariat department was materially aided by the voluntary assistance received from them. During the siege of Bhurtpore, supplies of grain were forwarded from the states nearest the scene of action to the army; and when the Fort of Calpee was attacked by a rebel subject of Saiown, the Sumption troops, at the request of this office, immediately proceeded to the protection of Koonah, whilst the forces of Oorchah, Thanse and Duttiah advanced, on the agent's application, to effect his reduction. In the fidelity of the Boundelah states, implicit confidence may be reposed: their attachment to British rule originates in self-interest. Under no previous government did they at any time enjoy their possessions free from all demand, either of service or tribute. Their union for the attainment of a common object, is a chimera. Between the Boondelahs and Mahrattahs a deeply-rooted antipathy has long existed, and time has not diminished it; Jhansi would fall an easy prey to Oorcha and Duttiah, and Jaloun could not support its existence against the aggressions of the Juggut Raj branch of the Chuttersal's family. The several members against one of that family, hold each other in mutual distrust and aversion; and as the portion of the province held by the British Government is not claimed by the Boondelahs, as it formed the undisputed part of the ex-peshwa's possessions, obtained by the adoption of his ancestor by Chuttersals, they would in all probability commit an aggressive act against it, but would turn their arms against each other, if any general ferment should exist in British India: for each alleges a right to some portion of his neighbour's territory.

APPENDIX H.

Net Import or Export of Treasure into and from the Three Ports of Calcutta, Fort St. George and Bombay, in each Year, from 1813-14, to 1832-33, inclusive.

	Company's Account.				Private Account.				Total Company's and Private.			
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.
1813-14	..	22,97,880*	..	22,97,880*	*54,41,288*	*2,28,117*	*4,85,636**	*51,83,769*	*54,41,288*	*20,69,763**	*4,85,636**	*28,85,889*
1814-15	..	4,69,243*	39,216	4,30,027*	95,31,819	4,28,891	11,78,005	1,11,38,715	95,31,819	40,352*	12,17,221	1,07,08,688
1815-16	..	161*	1,36,486	1,36,325	1,80,18,321	1,63,866	42,20,342	2,24,02,523	1,80,18,321	1,63,699	43,56,828	2,25,38,848
1816-17	76,99,554	144*	..	76,99,410	3,16,82,985	8,73,203	55,53,943	3,81,10,131	3,93,82,539	8,73,059	55,53,943	4,58,09,541
1817-18	9,51,130	88*	80,034	10,31,676	3,17,09,779	9,31,124	88,61,504	4,15,02,407	3,26,50,609	9,31,036	89,41,538	4,25,33,483
1818-19	19,76,657	1,081*	..	19,75,576	4,69,12,936	17,13,002	*1,46,32,391*	6,32,58,349	4,88,89,613	17,11,921	1,46,32,391	6,52,33,925
1819-20	61,86,415	2,543*	2,26,974*	59,56,898	3,13,60,689	..	47,10,836	3,60,71,525	3,75,47,104	2,543*	44,83,862	4,20,28,423
1820-21	12,17,282	2,366*	2,17,698*	9,97,218	2,12,60,506	16,83,310	41,74,719	2,71,18,625	2,24,77,878	16,80,944	39,57,021	2,81,15,843
1821-22	1,13,16,416*	28,13,819*	67,670*	1,41,97,890*	2,03,74,551	16,20,825	32,51,805	2,52,47,181	90,58,141	11,93,994*	31,84,135	1,10,49,282
1822-23	..	2,510*	28,46,239*	28,48,749*	*1,70,52,507*	20,95,634	39,24,521	2,30,72,662	1,70,52,507	20,93,124	10,78,282	2,02,23,913
1823-24	62,94,526*	51,38,476*	8,63,145*	1,22,96,147*	1,17,24,118	8,780*	41,62,614	1,58,77,952	54,29,592	51,47,256*	32,99,469	35,81,805
1824-25	9,27,221*	17,82,029*	..	27,09,250*	87,19,973	7,70,637	49,90,620	1,44,81,230	77,92,752	10,11,392*	49,90,620	1,17,71,980
1825-26	1,57,968	45,69,399*	..	44,11,431*	1,01,13,299	9,02,214	92,88,098	2,03,03,611	1,02,71,267	36,67,185*	92,88,098	1,58,92,180
1826-27	42,61,976	10,51,084	..	53,13,060	69,11,320	1,06,731	79,83,172	1,50,01,223	1,11,73,296	11,57,815	79,83,172	2,03,14,283
1827-28	18,81,822*	28,29,000*	..	47,10,912*	1,15,40,417	7,45,850	1,06,25,615	2,29,11,882	96,58,595	20,83,240*	1,06,25,615	1,82,00,970
1828-29	14,33,984	2,81,373*	..	11,52,611	33,61,349	1,37,351	96,49,071	1,31,47,771	47,95,333	1,44,022*	96,49,071	1,43,00,382
1829-30	7,92,747	40,50,834*	..	32,58,087*	73,77,185	3,90,413*	78,16,069	1,48,02,841	81,69,932	44,41,247*	78,16,069	1,15,44,754
1830-31	4,93,322	..	..	4,93,322	22,13,790	11,900	72,13,938	94,39,628	27,07,112	11,900	72,13,938	99,32,950
1831-32	73,89,815*	21,10,298*	..	95,00,113*	5,10,823*	11,53,479*	46,73,352	30,09,050	79,00,638*	32,63,777*	46,73,352	64,91,063*
1832-33	12,82,940*	2,40,964*	..	15,23,904*	13,79,512*	15,10,079*	28,99,407	9,816	26,62,452*	17,51,043*	28,99,407	15,14,088*

Note.—The Sums marked with an Asterisk denote the Net Exports.

Note.—In this Account, Madras and Bombay are converted into Sicca Rupees, at the bullion rate of 106.62 to 100.

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